

## ABSTRACT

### COUNSELING AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES

EVERETEZE, CAROLYN      B.A. UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS, 1976  
M.ED. LESLIE COLLEGE, 1978

#### AN EXPLORATION OF BODY IMAGE ATTITUDE AND PATERNAL DISENGAGEMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING AFRICAN AMERICAN ADOLESCENT FEMALES

Advisor: Dr. Lloyd Williams

Dissertation dated July, 1999

This study examined whether there was a statistically significant difference between body image attitudes in African American adolescent females ( $n = 78$ ) and paternal disengagement. The study was based on the premise that body image attitude is a multidimensional construct that is linked to factors such as culture, age, and familial experiences. This study proposed that the relationship with the father was of particular significance for the daughter in the development of her body image attitude.

An analysis of variance was used to analyze data collected from Upward Bound, Parent-Teacher-Student Association, and juvenile court sample populations. A Multidimensional Body Self-Relations Questionnaire and Demographic Survey were utilized to evaluate paternal disengagement, paternal contact, and body image attitude.

The researcher found that there was a statistically significant difference between body image attitude and paternal disengagement as well as between body image attitude and paternal contact.

The conclusions drawn from the analysis of the data suggested that the body image attitude of female adolescents is impacted by paternal disengagement and contact. It has contributed to the understanding of the role of father stability in the daughter's life. Moreover, it expanded the limited research on African American female adolescents' body image and paternal disengagement.



AN EXPLORATION OF BODY IMAGE ATTITUDE AND PATERNAL  
DISENGAGEMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR COUNSELING  
AFRICAN AMERICAN ADOLESCENT FEMALES

A DISSERTATION  
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF CLARK ATLANTA UNIVERSITY  
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR  
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY  
CAROLYN E. EVERETEZE

DEPARTMENT OF COUNSELING AND PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES

ATLANTA, GEORGIA

JULY 1999

R = vi      T = 172

© 1999

CAROLYN EVERETEZE

All Rights Reserved

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of my Ph.D. has been a journey of commitment and perseverance. I wish to thank my department and committee chair, Dr. Lloyd Williams, for setting clear boundaries enabling me to see the light at the end of the tunnel as well as Dr. Eugene Herrington, for his empowering attitude. A special sense of gratitude is extended to Dr. Adrienne Bradford, who not only served on my committee but provided unique guidance and often-needed nurturance. Others such as Dr. Reynolds, the administration and staff at Fulton County Juvenile Court, Atlanta Metropolitan College and Clark Atlanta University Upward Bound, and Douglass High School Parent-Teacher-Student Association are all owed a debt of gratitude for their valuable assistance.

My Ph.D. is a labor of love. It has been a journey that I have been fortunate not to have traveled alone. Walking with me was my husband, Rick, who has given me love and commitment only 32 years together can bring. Words are not enough to express my gratitude. My mom has been the strength behind me, kept the faith inside me, walked in front guiding me, and stood beside me eternally supportive. I thank my son Kailee who rescued me from computer woes and grew up to be a fine young man just beginning the journey into college. My path has been paved with support and words of encouragement from my three adult children and their families, my brother, sister, and other family members, and many friends. In closing, I'd like to give a very special acknowledgement to the living memory of my father, Clarence Broy, who gave me unconditional love.

# TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	ii
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	vi
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Purpose . . . . .	12
Statement of the Problem . . . . .	15
Research Questions and Hypotheses . . . . .	18
Significance of the Study . . . . .	19
Assumptions . . . . .	22
Limitations . . . . .	23
Conclusions . . . . .	24
Definitions . . . . .	25
2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE . . . . .	29
Introduction to Body Image . . . . .	29
Brief History of Body Image . . . . .	33
Multidimensionality and the Concept of Attitude . . . . .	40
Body Image Sociocultural Influences: Media, Racism, and Stereotypes . . . . .	44
Body Image: Gender and Physical Appearance . . . . .	48
Body Image and Self-Esteem . . . . .	50
Body Image and African American Adult and Adolescent Females . . . . .	54
Conceptualizing Disengagement . . . . .	58
Disengagement . . . . .	58
Fathers . . . . .	66
Mothers . . . . .	69
Body Image: Family and Parenting . . . . .	70
Body Image Theoretical Concepts: Africentric and Eurocentric Approaches . . . . .	72
Body Image Assessment . . . . .	78
3. METHODOLOGY . . . . .	81
Subjects . . . . .	81
Procedures . . . . .	82
Measures . . . . .	84
Demographic Survey Questionnaire . . . . .	84

## Table of Contents--Continued

CHAPTER	Page
3. METHODOLOGY (Continued)	
Description of the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire . . . .	85
Selection of MBSRQ . . . . .	86
MBSRQ Reliability and Validity . . . . .	87
Design and Data Analysis . . . . .	88
4. RESULTS PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS . . . . .	90
Introduction . . . . .	90
Analysis Results of Demographic Survey . . . .	94
Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire Analysis Results . . . . .	109
Data Analysis of MBSRQ Subscales . . . . .	109
Additional Subscales . . . . .	116
Results of ANOVA . . . . .	117
Results of Testing the Hypotheses . . . . .	119
Hypothesis 1 . . . . .	120
Hypothesis 2 . . . . .	120
5. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS . . . . .	121
Discussion . . . . .	121
Results of Demographic Data . . . . .	122
Implications . . . . .	128
Limitations . . . . .	129
Recommendations for Future Research . . . . .	130
Conclusions . . . . .	131
APPENDIXES:	
A. Fulton County Juvenile Court Upward Bound Permission Request Letter . . . . .	134
B. Participant Basic Screening Data Form . . . . .	135
C. Participant/Parent Packet . . . . .	136
D. Body Image Demographic Survey Questionnaire . . .	139
E. The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire . . . . .	142
F. Frequencies and Percentages for Responses to Individual Items on the MBSRQ . . . . .	148
G. Means, Frequencies, and Percentages for Factor Subscales on the MBSRQ . . . . .	159

## Table of Contents--Continued

	Page
REFERENCES . . . . .	164

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Means, Medians, and Modes for Demographic Survey Items . . . . .	95
2. Frequencies and Percentages for Demographic Variables . . . . .	97
3. Means, Medians, and Modes for MBSRQ Items . . .	110
4. Multidimensional Body Self Relations Questionnaire Summary of Total Data by Analytic Factor . . . . .	114
5. Means and Standard Deviations for Body Image Attitude and Paternal Disengagement . . . . .	117
6. ANOVA for Body Image Attitude and Paternal Disengagement Between and Within Groups . . .	118
7. Means and Standard Deviations for Body Image Attitude and Paternal Engagement/Contact . . .	119
8. ANOVA for Body Image Attitude and Paternal Engagement/Contact Between and Within Groups . . . . .	119

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Beginning with puberty, the adolescent undergoes a series of physical changes. For girls, the most obvious is the gain in body fat and change in shape (Micelle, 1994). Moreover, the interpretation of feedback received from others about those changes can have a significant impact on the individual's attitudes toward her body. Research has shown "the individual's experience of self as a capable and lovable person is significantly related to these early ongoing human relations" (Mahoney, 1990, p. 325).

Feelings about one's attractiveness, desirability, femininity, and even potential ultimately become the foundation for either a healthy or an unhealthy concept of self. A connection between body image and self-concept has been shown (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990; Rosen & Ross, 1968). Research has demonstrated a relationship between body image evaluations and implications of self (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990) and "the experience of body as a reflection of the self" (Fallon, 1990, p. 80). Other research has stated that it is the individual's subjective experiences that are



related to self-concept (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990; Micelle, 1994; Rosen & Ross, 1968).

The individual's self-concept, which includes one's experiences and feelings in regard to his or her body, is significantly related to one of the most primary human attachments a child experiences, which is with the father. In fact, Cooney and Kurtz (1996) suggested that the child's attachment to the father is more likely to be a predictor of adjustment in divorce than with the mother. Crockett, Eggebeen, and Hawkins (1993) found father presence plays a greater role in the well-being of older children. Forehand and Nousaianen (1993) suggested that adolescents seek approval from the fathers more so than from their mother perhaps because it is less available. Davis (1994) further reported that the father's role in his daughter's development, particularly regarding body image, extends into adulthood.

Messages about femininity and potential, as well as messages about the capable and lovable self, are sought by the daughter from the father. Having a father who is not available does not necessarily diminish the daughter's attachment to the father or reduce desire for a paternal relationship (White, Brinkerhoff, & Booth, 1985). Thornton, Orbach, and Axinn (1995) reported that the majority of children in their study on parent-child relationships saw

the natural father as being the most influential father figure in the children's lives. What occurs with father loss is the creation of what has been labeled as "father hunger" (Gallagher, 1998). The daughter is left in search of the paternal relationship, all the while trying to cope with feelings of paternal abandonment (Gallagher, 1998).

The findings of a study by Davis (1994) examined the relationship of women's attitudes towards their fathers to their body image. Results found women with negative attitudes toward the father to have more negative body image and negative self-esteem than their counterparts. It also reinforced this study's premise that there is some relationship between the daughter's body image attitude and the father. However, what this study further suggests is that the daughter's attitude about her body is affected by the father's disengagement. The primary concern thus becomes not so much the input from the father, but the lack of sought-after emotional reinforcement by the father due to his absence. The father's absence deprives the daughter of the opportunity for flirtatious exchanges and modeling of male-female relationships (Davis, 1994).

Body image is often defined as an individual's perception about weight; however, the meaning is much more encompassing than just weight alone. For many women, body image is the attitudes, feelings, and thoughts about

oneself, reflected through the individual's body behaviors (Fallon, 1990). Body behaviors are exhibited through one's physical representation of self to others via expression and communication about sexuality and affect (Freedman, 1990). It is further representative of gender, social, familial, and cultural values, demeanor, dress, and interpersonal relationships. The definition also includes a consideration of the individual's persona or how one physically presents oneself. Furthermore, "body image contains not only the thoughts about the body, but also the emotional experiences associated with it" (Micelle, 1994, p. 16).

How females view themselves and believe that others see them affects their body image (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990). Reaction to a comment, teasing, or rejection and loss, impacts on this self-perception. According to Davis (1994), "women's concerns with their body weight are a reflection of how others make judgments about them" (p. 14). Feelings about self, which include body image attitude, reflect responses to life circumstances and its traumas.

According to Kaufman and Heims (1956) and Fallon (1990), the reaction to life circumstances and traumas produce tension or pain/pleasure and can affect the individual's sense of well being, ego, and self-esteem. Traumas may be responded to with feelings of rejection and loss such as in the instance of poor father contact and

disengagement. For children, one of the major issues resulting in feelings of loss surround their parent (i.e., paternal disengagement). Disengagement may occur along a continuum ranging from father's minimal disengagement to total abandonment of the daughter.

Body image therefore involves a bio-psychosocial response that encompasses a physiological, sociological, and psychological perspective of oneself (Lerner & Jovanovic, 1990; Brown, Cash, & Mikulka, 1990; Bernstein, 1990). The result is the emergence of a causal body image model where ego determines body image, which in turn is impacted upon by the traumas in life, resulting in tensions that affect ego (Kaufman & Heims, 1956). Fallon (1990) identified a similar pattern wherein reflection of self impacts view toward biological growth which, depending on trauma or decline and life circumstances, is responded to with pleasure/pain, affecting reflections of self. The general findings of these studies indicate that a circular pattern exists which rotates among body image, ego, traumas/life circumstances, and tensions.

The same circular pattern can be applied to the impact of father disengagement on the body image attitude of African American female adolescents. A model can be proposed depicting a relationship between the African American female adolescent's body image attitude and father disengagement.

It suggested that the African American female adolescent's feelings about herself or attitude toward herself affect her body image, which is influenced by the trauma of her father's disengagement. This, in turn, leads to the experienced tensions affecting her attitude about self and body image. The tensions can be manifested through feelings of rejection, such as: abandonment and undesirability; anxiety, especially in interpersonal relationships; and acting out behaviors demonstrated through inappropriate sexual and unruly behaviors.

The establishment of body image for women in western society, especially those from African American, Asian, Hispanic, and Native American cultures, has meant adapting to Eurocentric standards of shape and beauty that are often unrealistic and unattainable. Acculturation appears to influence these body image dynamics for women of color. For example, Smith, Burlew, and Lundgreen (1991) indicated that there is a moderate relationship between body image and Black consciousness. It shows that the higher the Black consciousness, the more accepting the individual is of her body image.

The quandary begins very early in life, as seen in the study by Clark and Clark (1947) in which Black children were presented with a choice of having a black or white doll. The majority of the Black children selected White dolls. This

demonstrated a preference for a White doll by Black children. It also implied that there is a relationship between self-identity, body image (based on color and other racially based values), life experiences (cultural attitudes), and responses (rejection of physical self).

The relationship between self-identity and body image is further evidenced in studies by Berschied, Walster, and Bohrnstedt (1973), Freedman (1990), Davis (1994), Padin, Lerner, and Spiro (1981), Smith et al. (1991), and Thomas (1988). They found that a relationship exists between self-concept/self-esteem and how individuals see their body image. Researchers have also identified a significant relationship of body image to ego (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990; Kaufman & Heims, 1958), self-esteem (Berscheid et al., 1973; Davis, 1994; Thomas, 1985), and self-concept (Staffieri, 1967).

Books and articles about body image and father-daughter relationships are on the rise (Micelle, 1994). Autobiographies such as "Oprah" (Waldron, 1987), "I Know Why A Caged Bird Sings" (Angelou, 1993), "The Wounded Women" (Schierse-Leonard, 1985), and others by Gloria Steinem and Germaine Greer (Goulter & Minnenger, 1993) reflect the important role of fathers in the daughters' lives. Although not all are of a scholarly nature, their

themes focus on the connection of daughter's self esteem to the father even more than to the mother.

At the same time, research investigating the influence of the father on the daughter's body image attitude has shown a link between the daughter's feelings of body image satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the father relationship (Schierse-Leonard, 1985). Fulfillment of her potential, her femininity, and her ability to have healthy male-female relationships have been shown to be connected with and influenced by the relationship with the father.

Initial stimulus for investigating this topic emerged from interest in how daughters received and integrated messages about their femininity and potential from their fathers. These included messages about acceptability, appearance and self, procreation, intimacy, and sexuality. Several researchers suggested that the father's role is to relay messages and role model for male-female relationships and to promote her femininity and potential. Fathers teach children about risk taking and daughters about male expectations (Brody, Moore, & Glel, 1994).

Women's feelings about how they view themselves and how they appear to others are linked to their self-worth (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990). Life changes such as father disengagement and the resulting tension of disconnectedness can lead to feelings of abandonment, rejection, and poor

self-esteem (Berger, 1968). They are often the foundation of issues leading to therapy. Cash and Pruzinsky (1990) supported this, indicating that "how we think, feel and react to our own self-perceived physical attributes is reflected in our psychological development and unique experience" (p. 72).

The primary concern thus becomes not so much the input from the father, but the lack of sought-after emotional reinforcement by the father due to his absence, whether total or partial. The father's absence deprives the daughter of the opportunity for flirtatious exchanges and modeling of male-female relationships (Davis, 1994).

Accepting this precept raises two questions. First is whether or not adolescents require paternal feedback from which they can model and define male-female roles in order to determine acceptable behaviors and expectations. Second, does the daughter's need for praise about her attractiveness and achievements get met when the father is disengaged? In other words, does she require a father's engagement for validation of her feminine self and potential?

An article in the Atlanta Journal-Constitution newspaper stated that "Dads Can Save Their Daughters From Disaster," and "girls desperate for the approval from men will take it wherever they can find it" (Tucker, 1997, p. C7). If, as suggested by researchers, females experience an



external locus of control, whereby emotional and psychological responses are significantly influenced by opinions of others, then the female adolescent's need for approval makes the individual more dependent on the input and feedback of others and reliance on connectedness with others (Berger, 1968; Zerbe-Enns, 1991).

The difference in response to father disengagement by males and females is interesting. Until recently, adolescent boys were seen to be more victimized by a father's absence, to which they responded by exhibiting more overt acting-out behaviors. However, females tend to internalize and act out through earlier sexual involvement, seeking to please, seeking acceptance through their bodies, and depression (Fields, 1983; Schierse-Leonard, 1985). It is important to understand what influence the father has on the daughter's body image attitude development (Brody et al., 1994).

Research shows that African American fathers, even more than the mothers, have significant influence on the females' gender role behaviors and that a relationship exists between gender-role orientation and body attitudes (Harris, 1995). Cooney and Kurtz (1996) generalized this even further, indicating that the child's relationship with the father not only affects but predicts the adjustment of adult offspring.

Increases in the single-parent family are estimated to be from 14% to 58%, with the majority being led by mothers. In 1994, the figures ranged from a low of 14% in Utah to a high of 38% in the District of Columbia (Casey Foundation, 1997). The state of Georgia ranked 44th. The 1968 Bureau of the Census found that in 1967 more than 6 million children were in fatherless homes. Between 1985 and 1994, "the share of families with children headed by a single parent increased from 22% in 1905 to 26% in 1994. What was considered the traditional family model is changing shape. Remarriage causes these numbers to fluctuate.

Blankenhorn (1995) indicated that this is an increasing trend. He also suggested that the role of fatherhood is not just shrinking, it is fragmenting. He described shrinking as "a father doing less, and perhaps doing it less well, but he is still a father" (p. 19). "However fatherhood fragmentation is more critical because the responsibility for his children is abandoned and the father is physically absent" (Blankenhorn, 1995, p. 19). It is the foundation of disengagement.

Researching body image has implications for therapists counseling adolescent and adult African American females within the body image context. Mental health professionals can benefit from additional knowledge in areas such as

self-esteem, motivation, family counseling, treatment of weight-related disorders, anxiety, compulsive-obsessive disorders, and gender-related issues. Moreover, the significance of this study is underscored by the fact that empirical studies have not adequately examined non-White women's attitudes regarding their bodies (Harris, 1985). My search of the literature has found no study to date on the effect that a disengaged African American father has on his adolescent daughter's attitude about her body.

#### Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine whether there is any relationship between the body image attitude of the African American female adolescent and the nonresident disengaged father. The goal is to gain a comprehensive empirical understanding of the father-daughter parameters, which influence body image attitude. The parameters include the value the daughter feels is placed on her appearance by the absent disengaged father. The value may be described in terms of positive or negative body image attitude.

This study seeks to better understand the factors that may affect an adolescent's image of her body. One such factor is the role which paternal disengagement plays in the daughter's development of attitude about her body.

Exploration of body image attitude and father disengagement was selected for several reasons. In particular, limited research on the African American female adolescent has occurred within the scope of father-daughter relationships, and the body image attitude of African American female adolescents has not received much research attention (Harris, 1995). At the same time, existing body image data has primarily been derived from White female populations (Thomas, 1988).

Furthermore, father absence has increased, with fewer fathers living in the home or available for their children (Kruk, 1991, 1994). This stimulates the need to better understand the impact on the daughter's body image development. Additionally, research focusing on the cultural and familial influences on the body image of African American adolescent females needs to be expanded.

Body image is tied to the individual's awareness of bodily change (Lerner & Jovanovic, 1990). Research has shown concern with appearance to be prevalent in adolescence (Cash, Winstead, & Brown, 1996). For the adolescent, the issues of self-identity and physical development are significant (Padin, Lerner, & Spiro, 1981).

The adolescent's interpretation of how "I see myself being seen by others," particularly peers and family,

serves as a gauge by which to determine "who I am" (self perception) and "how I am accepted" (self projection). Restated, "Body image is the way people perceive themselves and, equally important, the way they think others see them" (Fallon, 1990, p. 80; Freedman, 1988).

According to Cash and Brown (1989), adolescents are especially concerned with appearance. This may be due in part to the fact that they are experiencing significant bodily changes at a rapid rate. The issues of self-identity and physical development are significant (Padin et al., 1985).

The influence of father disengagement on the daughter's body image reflects an important component of the paternal role (Fields, 1983). Research on the father-daughter relationship has shown his role to be significant to the establishment of the daughter's opinions about herself and others (Fields, 1983). The father not only serves as a protector for his daughter but also models male/female interactions (Davis, 1994; Fields, 1983).

Limited body image research on African American female adolescents has restricted consideration of influences specific to her developmental process (i.e., family body image beliefs) (Harris, 1995). As a result, there are research voids in the area of body image. In fact, research by Harris (1995b) has shown that, "absent from existing

studies is an examination of demographic and sociocultural variables that relate to perceptions of and feelings toward the body among African American women" (p. 129). The investigation of father's disengagement seeks to further contribute to the conceptualization of body image attitudes of African American adolescents by addressing the family system as a variable influencing body image attitude.

#### Statement of the Problem

The development of healthy body image in African American females requires positive body image messages from both societal and familial domains. The problem involves how body messages are transmitted and how they are received and interpreted. This study is an exploration of how daughters receive and interpret messages that influence their body image attitudes.

African American women receive many messages that define ideal image, size, hair, shape, weight, and sexuality. Family, media, peers, life experiences, gender, and culture all lend to the individual's attitude about body image (Berscheid et al., 1987; Bowen, Tomoyasu, & Cauce, 1991; Brown et al., 1990; Davis, 1994).

The body image attitudes of African American women have been examined mainly from the perspective of Eurocentric body image concepts for beauty and shape.

Factors such as thinness, hair texture, and eye color, when used as standards for desirable appearance (Harris, 1995a), fail to give credence to characteristics such as a broader nose or larger hips (Smith et al., 1991).

Until recently, body image concerns were often described as being weight related such as obesity, binging, and purging. As a result, much of the body image attention focused on those issues. However, Harris (1994) referred to research by White (1991) which suggested that body image for African American women encompasses a broader range of experiences that include sexism, racism, and daily stressors. Most important was White's inclusion of childhood alienation and other earlier life experiences.

Although body image messages are influenced by media, peers, and society, the family plays a significant role in the process (Davis, 1994). In fact, the need for further study on how the family impacts the female's body image has been recommended (Harris, 1995a). The inadequate exploration of body image attitudes of African American female adolescents and the influences of familial relationships further exacerbate the problem. An example is the study of Baumrind (1972), which examined the socialization effects on Black children and found that dominant and independent behavior in Black girls was met with less rejection by males and not as discouraged as with White girls. This is

important in gaining a clearer understanding of the adolescent's relationship with the absent disengaged father. A relationship between body image and self-esteem has been shown to be especially consistent during adolescence (Berscheid et al., 1973; Harris, 1995a, 1995b; Padin et al., 1981).

Body image lacks a multidimensional approach (Harris, 1995a), which allows for a more encompassing comprehension of variables affecting body image. A more holistic approach, which considers the affects of culture, gender, class, age, social, and familial concepts is necessary to expand the field of body image. More expansive research that gives attention to the gender- and culture-specific variables relevant to African American women is needed. Suggested is consideration of sociocultural variables especially as relates to people of color.

Western society's messages about the body can create conflicting images for the African American adolescent female. More important is the imprint on her identity as a result of her father's disengagement (Fields, 1983).



Intimacy, sexuality, and interpersonal relationships, all a part of her psychological growth, are affected (Fields, 1993). Research has indicated that the female's messages about body image, appearance, and acceptance are related to the relationship with men (Thomas, 1988). The problem then lies in what messages of acceptance or unacceptance the child receives or the father projects when he is disengaged.

There is a need to expand information in the counseling field on the African American female adolescent's body image. Little is known about either the immediate or residual effects of the nonresident disengaged father on female body image development. Increased research can expand this opportunity. It also offers a forum for counselors to establish a clearer understanding of the dynamics lending to the development and maintenance of healthy versus unhealthy sense of self inclusive of body image attitude that has not previously been available. It requires counselors to have skills enabling the client to receive messages which support healthy body image appropriate to healthy development in the adolescent.

### Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research questions and hypotheses that directed this study are as follows:

1. Does the body image attitude of African American adolescent females have a relationship to paternal disengagement?

Null Hypothesis 1: There is no significant statistical difference between the body image attitude of African American female adolescents and paternal disengagement.

2. Does the body image attitude of African American adolescent females have a relationship to paternal contact?

Null Hypothesis 2: There is no significant statistical difference between the body image attitude of African American adolescent females and paternal engagement/contact.

#### Significance of the Study

The study's significance emanates from its attention to the following.

1. Gender: utilizing an African American female population sample.

2. Adolescents: sample population aged 13 through 17 years.

3. Social: consequences of the impoverished father-daughter relationship on how the daughter feels others see her.

4. Familial: examining the father-daughter relationship influences, specifically body image.

5. Counseling of body image related issues in African American female adolescents.

6. Cultural, deemphasizing the focus on the physical Eurocentric body image definitions.

The study offers an opportunity to expand upon the concept of body image attitude. The focus on African American females allows for a better understanding of body image from a cultural, gender-specific perspective. Research has found consciousness, self-esteem, and satisfaction with physical appearance among African American female college students to be significant (Thomas, 1988). This study explores earlier influences of the family on the individual's body image development.

The exploration of the paternal relationship further researches the familial domain of body image. Examining the effects of disengagement on body image attitude allows research to gain a perspective of the feelings and behaviors resulting from life experiences/trauma incurred by father disengagement.

The significance is underscored by the poignant lack of research on how and if father absence is integrated into the body image attitude of the African American female adolescent.

Examining how interpersonal development is influenced by father-daughter interpersonal dynamics (i.e.,

disengagement vs. engagement/contact) is significant because "measures that assess specific family dynamics and sociocultural characteristics that may contribute to socialization practices and values of African American parents might also add to the existing literature on body image for African American women" (Harris, 1995b, p. 143).

Evidence has also shown a relationship between the establishment of self-esteem relating to one's sense of identity and body image (Smith et al., 1991). How they are actually seen by others is an important aspect of the developmental process for adolescents seeking to establish a sense of identity.

Healthy identity is achieved through overcoming psychosexual or psychosocial obstacles, as indicated by theorists such as Freud and Erickson or through establishment of strong interpersonal relationships as indicated by Sullivan (Muuss, 1988). The goal is for a healthy transition toward adulthood.

Concepts determining body image were previously defined by weight-related indices such as obesity and thinness (Micelle, 1994). The conceptualization may be misleading. An error occurs if one believes this to be the most appropriate measurement of body image for women of color and specifically for African American women. It is the

inclusion of cultural and social indices relative to body image which broadens the relevancy of body image research.

A number of researchers have identified the significance of a multidimensional approach to body image (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990; Fallon, 1990; Harris, 1995a, 1995b). The inclusion of variables such as interpersonal relationships, cultural influences, and familial dynamics have demonstrated a significant contribution toward better understanding the concept of body image.

The clinical significance of this study is derived from its potential to provide further insight on the body image concept for researchers and other professionals. Consideration of the sociocultural components of body image attempts to give a perspective that is relevant to counseling African American female adolescents. Brouwers (1990) stated that it is "important for counselors to understand how family systems, messages, and patterns affect individuals, this also includes attitudes" (p. 146).

#### Assumptions

The study's assumptions involve the significance of the father's relationship to the daughter's body image development, the representation of the sample population, and appropriateness of the instruments.

It is assumed that the understanding of body image attitude in African American adolescent females can be enhanced by exploring whether there is a relationship to paternal disengagement and that African American adolescent daughters need supportive father-daughter relationships to develop positive body image attitudes.

The sampled population is assumed to be representative of the African American adolescent population. Furthermore, the effects of confounding variables such as income, education, intelligence, and family will be diminished by seeking a population which will be homogeneous.

Finally, it is assumed that the assessment instruments normed using a predominantly Euro-American population will adequately address body image issues of African American adolescent females and that both the Demographic Questionnaire and the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire will be answered honestly.

#### Limitations

Limitations of the study evolve from factors involving prior lack of research in the field on body image attitude and African American female adolescents and paternal disengagement. There is limited literature on body image or body image attitudes with this population, as well as on African American fathers or father-daughter interpersonal

relationships. Secondly, assessment instrumentation measuring African American female adolescent's body image attitude, not directly related to weight, is not readily available. Thirdly, the daughter's body image is strongly affected by factors existing before the disengagement, which can make it difficult to separate degree and level of influence.

### Conclusions

The exploration of body image attitude requires a multidimensional approach; however, most have adopted the unidimensional perspective, selecting a specific aspect of the individual to study. As a result, data have provided limited information for review, especially as related to the non-Euro-American populations.

This study takes into consideration the importance of gender, age, social, psychological, cultural, familial, and attitude dimensions on the development of body image in adolescents. The focus will be on African American adolescent females' body image attitude and the influences of disengaged fathers. A study by Thomas (1988) found a positive correlation between the woman's body image satisfaction and her perception of significant men in her life. Regardless of her father's status, he often remains a significant man in the daughter's life.

Increased understanding of how body image attitude of adolescents is impacted upon by the disengaged father provides an opportunity to explore factors, aside from body weight and body weight related disorders, that influence the African American adolescent female's attitude about their appearance and consequential feelings.

The adolescents' ability to feel comfortable with their physical changes and how they believe others relate to them is a significant part of growing up. The lack of father engagement by which to model male-female relationships leaves the adolescent female with a myopic perspective of her femininity and potential. The effect on her attitude about her body image is the concern of this research.

In conclusion, by better understanding the dynamics which influence the adolescent's body image development process, both researchers and counselors can gain an understanding of (a) how the African American adolescent female receives body image messages and (b) how to develop skills that will enable them to teach healthy body image.

### Definitions

Adolescence is described as the "transition from childhood to adulthood." Therefore, an adolescent is one who is transitioning from childhood to adulthood. The transition includes psychological, emotional, and mainly physical



maturation. Most describe adolescence as occurring between puberty and adulthood; however, age range is generally from 12 to 18 years.

African American refers to those Americans who describe their racial and ethnic makeup as being derived from African ancestry.

Appearance concerns the individual's subjective experience of his/her own aesthetics and attributes (Cash and Pruzinsky, 1990, p. 51).

Body image is a multidimensional construct composed of perceptual and attitudinal aspects (Bond & Cash, 1992; Cash & Brown, 1987; Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990). It consists of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components, including the assessment of overall body satisfaction as well as satisfaction with specific physical attributes (e.g., Bond & Cash, 1992; Cash & Brown, 1989; Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990; Keeton, Cash & Brown, 1990; Rucker & Cash, 1991). It is the individual's physical link to the environment which is composed of family, sociocultural, and gender.

Body image affect includes the emotional responses generated by conscious thoughts about the body (Freedman, 1990, p. 272).

Body image attitude consists of affect, cognition, and behaviors concerning one's size/appearance and refers to the

ideas and rules that organize one's view of the physical self (Rucker & Cash, 1991, p. 291).

Body image dissatisfaction--"body parts and physical dimensions are assessed accurately but react to bodies with extreme forms of disparagement or occasionally aggrandizement" (Cash & Brown, 1987, p. 488).

Body image perception--"Perceptual body image includes the estimation of one's body size, including perceptual distortion and discrepancy from idealized standards," according to Rucker and Cash (1991, p. 291).

Paternal engagement/contact refers to a father not living in the home but who has had direct physical contact with his daughter during the past month.

Paternal disengagement refers to a father not living in the home and who has not had direct physical contact with his daughter. Disengagement may be due to reason of divorce, separation, abandonment, or choice. Disengagement occurs on a continuum ranging from minimum to maximum contact. This may be expressed as no paternal attempt to contact at all and no verbal or non-physical contact more than once a month for at least 1 year.

Gender identity refers to the perception of oneself as male or female (Fagot, 1982, p. 312).

Gender role is "the attitudes and behaviors by which individuals indicate their sex to others; on the other hand,

is always open to modification and changes constantly throughout the life span" (Fagot, 1982, p. 312).

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Introduction to Body Image

According to Davis (1994), "women's attitudes towards their fathers were more strongly related to body image than to their self-esteem" (p.42). She furthermore expressed that there is an interconnectedness between the adolescent's body image, self-esteem, and approval-seeking behaviors with the father, unlike with the mother. Not having a father on which to focus the early flirtatious exchanges may result in a lack of emotional male-female role boundaries. Implications include a more pronounced need to seek intimate relationships with men at an earlier age (Fields, 1983).

Freedman (1988) suggested that the body image of women is determined by a sense of attractiveness. Attractiveness is prescribed by "socially defined attributes of appearance" (Cash & Brown, 1989). Standards for physical attractiveness are promoted through messages from the media, society, peers, significant others, and family (Harris, 1995a; Micelle, 1994). Furthermore, they are reinforced culturally and socially from traditions and values of the father and

mother (Seltzer, 1991). Davis (1994) found the females' sense of attractiveness to be influenced by significant males in their lives.

White standards for attractiveness such as skin color, hair texture, physical features, and thinness are difficult for the African American adolescent and adult female to emulate. The impact on the individual's body attitude can result in a preoccupation with unrealistic and often unachievable standards (Smith et al., 1991). However, as difficult as that task may be, the desire to fulfill perceived or actual messages about body image expectations by significant others, in this case the father, may prove to be more evasive. The difficulty arises from the adolescent's translation of gender and role messages and who is or is not available to help the adolescent define body image parameters.

Males and females receive different gender and role messages (Chubb, Fertman, & Ross, 1997). The messages help define behavior, attitudes, and feelings about masculinity and femininity. Body image for men is determined by physical fitness or effectiveness (Freedman, 1988). A female's body image generally depends on the messages she is given and the responses she receives about her attractiveness. The messages are received through experiences with family,

school, church, and other formal and informal institutions in her life.

The scope of this study expands upon previous research that shows the female adolescent's development of body image definition to be determined by her affiliation and sense of connectedness with others (Cooney & Kurtz, 1996; Hoelter & Harper, 1987; Mellor, 1989). The quest for acceptance from, affiliation with, and connection to the father, has implications for the adolescent's present and future capacity to translate and integrate her body image development in a healthy manner.

It is important to note that the adolescent's response to the loss of a father due to death is different from disengagement because the child and family tend to receive stronger social support, suffer less stigmatization (White, Brinkerhoff, & Booth, 1985), and tend to memorialize and elevate the deceased parent in a positive way. The increased frequency of disengaged fathers (Blankenhorn, 1995; Herzog & Sudia, 1973) makes it more difficult for the adolescent female to define male-female relationships and gender boundaries. Concern therefore lies with the potential dilemma that can develop when paternal modeling by which to determine body image guidelines is lacking.

As interest in body image has grown, conceptualization of body image has increased to include the effects of body

image perception and attitude. This has been followed with significant attention to the constructs of weight and image (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990).

Prior research has shown the primary perspective used to conceptualize body image to be unidimensional (Butters & Cash, 1987; Cash & Brown, 1989; Harris, 1995a). However, research by Harris (1995b) showed that the development of a sense of self interpreted through the body image attitude of African American adolescent females can be better understood if studied from a multidimensional perspective, which takes into consideration the cultural and social implications. Accordingly, the current study utilized a multidimensional approach which incorporates body image attitude and familial constructs.

Early adolescence is a significant time of body change and maturation for adolescents. Females are affected as their body gains weight, hips broaden, and breasts develop (Clifford, 1971). Consequently, the formation of their identity becomes an integration of how they see themselves changing and how others respond to those changes.

Studies on body image have expressed a need to expand our understanding of the familial relationship to body image and recognize that significant others play an important role in the development of positive self-image, body image,

self-esteem, and feelings about one's appearance (Thomas, 1988).

Research that integrates the relationship of the father, daughter, and body image domains of African American females has been limited, thereby stimulating the need to add to research in this area.

### Brief History of Body Image

A review of body image history reveals several dominant issues. The first is that studies have focused limited attention on African American females (Harris, 1995a, 1995b; Smith et al., 1991). The second is that body image has been defined and redefined over the centuries. Standards for woman's appearance have fluctuated from thin to voluptuous through whatever means available (i.e., regurgitation, clothing restraints, diet, or exercise) (Fallon, 1990). Third, exploration of body image dissatisfaction and familial dynamics of body image have been minimized. The majority of body image attention is on weight and the treatment of weight-related psychiatric disorders (Cash & Brown, 1987; Cash & Green, 1986; Clifford, 1971). Fourth, assessment has been primarily unidimensional and has only recently focused on using tools such as the "Body Relations Scales" and the "Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire" (MBSRQ) which measure several body



image indices (e.g., attitude and perception). Although the MBSRQ has expanded on body image measurement, it is not necessarily within a cultural context (Cash & Green, 1986).

The African American woman's body image history has been preoccupied with the interpretation of her body shape and the implied social expectations (e.g., the big shapeless mammy or the wiry, fast-sex driven harlot) (Comez-Diaz & Green, 1996). Beyond that, body image history has demonstrated a disregard for the natural physical attributes of non-White cultures (Comez-Diaz & Green, 1996; Davis, 1994; Smith et al., 1991).

The research field is beginning to give consideration to the social and cultural aspects of the African American female's body image attitudes (Nasser, 1988). One such area is the recognition that African American culture is more accepting of body image characteristics such as being heavier (Harris, 1994; Nasser, 1988; Rucker & Cash, 1992). For many non-White groups, plumpness represents good health, wealth, status, power, maternalism (Freedman & Rosen, 1968), and the ability of a husband to provide for his wife (Nasser, 1988).

The results from several comparative studies between Black and White females showed the Black female to be more satisfied with her body weight and not as consumed with thinness (Harris, 1995a; Rucker & Cash, 1992). However,

research has given minimal recognition of influences such as family, racism, or other issues relevant to African American women.

Western society's body image parameters have created very restrictive standards (Rucker & Cash, 1992) for determining the Black women's beauty, for generally, she least possesses White characteristics. "This is problematic for African American women who have internalized the ideal" (Comez-Diaz & Green, 1996, p. 18). Instead, she has been left in pursuit of straight hair, lighter skin, a smaller nose and lips, and rejection of her generally large hips. This is supported in research by Smith et al. (1991), McGee, Nobles, Wade, and Akbar (1976), and Akbar (1991).

Standards that often suggest acceptance through acculturation are transmitted between and within cultures. Messages are reflected through generations from mother to daughter and father to daughter, from grandmother to granddaughter, from the Black community and White society. The domino effect has shadowed African Americans since slavery, echoing still in the parades of bleached blonde, hair woven, skin bleaching, color conscious Black women of today.

One study by Bond and Cash (1992) examined the skin color and body images of African American college women. They found Black women, although not necessarily focused on

skin color, did see the Black man as desiring a lighter skinned woman. Implications were that having a lighter complexion made a woman more desirable.

Hooks (1995) wrote about "appearance obsession," which described how Black women have learned to compensate externally through hair and clothes for internal poor self-image. Whether questionable or not, other research results indicate that the female's sense of identity emanates from an external locus of control (Chubb et al., 1997). It is demonstrated through their need for connection with others (Berger, 1968; Harris, 1995a, 1995b; Mellor, 1989; Thomas, 1988).

Hooks (1995), Chubb et al. (1997), Thomas (1988), and Harris (1995a) proposed that females have traditionally sought external definition and validation of self. The implications are significant for this study in that it offers a possible explanation for the daughter's attachment needs. It also supports the importance of others to the daughter body image attitude development. Furthermore, it continues the emphases on parallel relationships between internal body image and internal self-esteem and the external locus of control and disengaged father not providing external guidelines/behaviors for the daughter to model when exploring femininity. It also lends support to this study's suggested causal model approach.

While Eurocentric beauty standards hold little relevance for the Black woman, they are perpetuated primarily through relationships with others. Parents play a significant role in this process.

The impact of each parent on the development and body image attitude varies, but traditionally mothers are credited with having the most influence (McAdoo, 1993). This may stem from her role being seen as the primary caretaker of the children. However, in a study by Davis (1994), she referred to a published statement by the American Anorexia Bulimia Association, which said:

Much has been written about the mother relationship. The process has seemed to ignore and/denigrate the father's role in developing and affirming the sense of confidence, self esteem, competence and pleasure in being female, all building blocks for a woman's being. (Kinoy, 1993, p. 7)

The recognition of the father's role in the adolescent daughter's development has not received major consideration and is a somewhat recent phenomenon that is increasing and in need of further investigation (Forehand & Nousaianen, 1993). At the same time, research by Ross (1997) has shown that, "fathers play decisive roles in determining their daughters' attitudes about their bodies" (p. 7).

Despite the rise in body image and body image related disorders research, there has been very limited exploration of the multidimensionality of the body image construct.

Historically, researchers have not considered "factors specific to the assessment process traditionally used to examine African American women's body attitudes" (Harris, 1995b, p. 130). Lack of a comprehensive view on the subject has resulted in a restrictive interpretation of the body image phenomenon applicable to few segments of the population (Cash & Green, 1986). As body image research has expanded, it has begun to address some of the prior limitations that created a void in its knowledge base.

The study of body image and related concepts has been narrowly defined, not just to topic and subject area, but to sampled populations. In 1996, Cash, Winstead, and Janda conducted a body image survey that netted responses from 91% Whites, 4% Blacks, 3% Hispanics, and 2% others. Although the "Body Image Self-Relations Questionnaire" was the assessment tool and is designed to be multidimensional, it appears that the magazine's (Psychology Today) sample population was almost exclusively White and/or the questions in the survey or topic itself were not relevant for non-White populations. This pattern appears to be pervasive in the body image field.

As the reader may have surmised by now, the majority of body image research has focused on the White female, especially in the area of body weight disorders (Harris, 1987; Steininger & Garcia, 1988).

Material on theoretical approaches to body image revealed two traditional approaches. The first was based in Eurocentric ethos separating mind and body, while focusing on the sense of development within an "I" centered domain. This was supported by theorists such as Freud and Erickson, who saw body development linked to body ego development (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990; Krueger, 1990; Mellor, 1989). The second was the cognitive behavioral modality (Butters & Cash, 1987; Freedman, 1990; Rosen, Saltzberg, & Srebnik, 1989). Both are relevant for the treatment of behavior disorders (Freedman, 1990). The body image field also widely accepts the sociocultural approach; it is considered relevant because it addresses body image dissatisfaction, taking into consideration "the result of socialization on beauty values" (Bond & Cash, 1992, p. 887).

While no specific Africentric model for the treatment of body image was found, its foundation, set in the integration of self with the environment and others (Nobles 1980), has cultural implications for the counseling of body image. How one sees oneself within the context of others is relevant to this research, along with the link of one's physical self to the environment.

Despite the fact that body image research has existed for some time, it remains exclusive, failing to incorporate a true conceptualization of the subject area. Extensive

investigation of the cultural, racial, and social domains (e.g., skin color, size, attitudes, and influences) is lacking. As a result, cultural sensitivity and relevancy need to occur in the development of interventions specific to interpersonal development in the African American adolescent female.

#### Multidimensionality and the Concept of Attitude

Harris (1995b) stated that "most researchers of African American women's body attitudes conceptualize body image as a unidimensional construct" (p. 131). Few studies examine body image from a multidimensional or multifaceted perspective, although studies have indicated that the construct of body image is multidimensional (Brown et al., 1990; Cash & Brown, 1989; Cash & Green, 1986).

What has occurred is the establishment of a more unidimensional perspective in areas such as the clinical application of dysfunctions of eating (e.g., restraint and dyscontrol) and body image (e.g., body image dissatisfaction dysphoria) (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990; Thompson, 1990). Consequently, research has not adequately addressed the dimensions or issues of non-Euro-American populations or the impact on adolescent development.

In reviewing the research literature relevant to this study, several concerns pertaining to the lack of a multidimensional approach emerged. They are as follows:

1. Studies frequently lacked the cultural dimensions (i.e., issues that are relevant to cultural identity, including hair, skin color, expectations and standards, racism, and religious and family values) which influence the development of body image attitude.

2. Research on body image was frequently underpinned by a gender-specific context that magnified Eurocentric cultural body image concepts.

3. The majority of body image research has centered on the physical appearance, the size/weight of the body, and the consequential problems.

4. The lack of multidimensionality in describing body image has created a limited scope for clinical applications.

5. The assumptions are based on limited body image parameters, which has made the body image construct difficult to define (Rucker & Cash, 1991).

Studies on body image have concluded that it is important to incorporate a multidimensional perspective in order to limit faulty results and assumptions. They have suggested that body image research can only be comprehended and valid if a multidimensional approach is applied (Cash & Rucker, 1992).



One study identified Black consciousness as a significant component affecting one's body image and physical appearance (Smith et al., 1991). It supported the importance of incorporating a broader scope of body image study that provides a forum for the myriad of body image dimensions.

Even though "research suggesting race and class play powerful, but often neglected, roles in women's weight and in the perceptions and attitudes that accompany it has been available for over twenty years" (Bowen, Tomoyasu, & Cauce, 1991), there has been minimum focus in that direction.

In addition, with the effort of current research to employ culturally relevant concepts, such as racial and socioeconomic status differences in acceptance and attitudes toward weight, food, and shape, there is still a general disregard of dimensions such as familial and interpersonal relationships of body image and body image attitude for African American female adolescents:

At least two, relatively independent, dimensions of body image are recognized: (1) perceptual body image (i.e., estimation of one's body size, including perceptual distortion and discrepancy from idealized standards); and (2) attitudinal body image (i.e., affect, cognition and behaviors concerning one's size appearance. (Rucker & Cash, 1991, p. 291)

Several studies (Bond & Cash, 1992; Cash & Brown, 1987; Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990; Cash & Rucker, 1992) concluded

that attitudinal body image is a multidimensional construct composed of perceptual and attitudinal aspects. Expanding on this, one can see that body image multidimensionality evolves out of external and internal experiences.

The external is determined by perceptions of the body image resulting from beliefs interpreted about one's body. The interpretation of external body image beliefs are influenced by a conglomeration of experiences, interpersonal dynamics, age, gender, cultural, family, and socioeconomic factors.

On the other hand, the internal body image experience is reflected through the individual's body image attitude and feelings, based on coping skills, sense of self, emotional security, healthy interpersonal adaptations, and integration (e.g., a sense of trust and security, feelings of being loved and being worthy of love). The attitudinal body image construct is determined through the individual's affective, cognitive, and behavioral indices (Brown et al., 1990; Rucker & Cash, 1992).

It is well within the purview of this study to utilize the attitude dimension of body image as a construct that will enable the researcher to explore the relationship of the daughter's body image feelings to the father's disengagement.

More recent studies have been grounded in body image attitude and body image perception dimensions but still lack the in-depth exploration which incorporates the interactive effect of a multidimensional approach inclusive of social, gender, cultural, familial, interpersonal, racial, class, and economic factors (Rucker & Cash, 1992).

#### Body Image Sociocultural Influences:

##### Media, Racism, and Stereotypes

The literature dealing with issues exploring psychosocial influences, media, racism, and stereotypes in body image and the African American female adolescent is not as expansive as one might think. While much has been written about psychosocial influences on adolescent development, the effects of the media, racism, and stereotypical Black female roles, their relationship to body image has not received significant research attention, especially relating to the African American adolescent female's body image. Because each of these variables is so pervasive and certainly a research topic unto itself, the review of the literature is limited to references from articles on body image with appropriate mention of other resources.

When one discusses the psychosocial influences of body image, work by authors like Comez-Diaz and Green (1996) emerges. In their research on African American women they

discussed body image within a social context. They incorporated variables such as the effects of skin color and the sometimes conflictual interfamilial tension which can occur in Black families using it as a weapon in disputes.

One study by Bond and Cash (1992) researched the skin color construct and the significance within a body image concept. Sixty-six African American females, 18-37 years old, completed the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire along with the Skin Color Questionnaire. They looked at overall satisfaction with appearance and skin color. Findings showed that the darker Black women viewed the Black man as desiring a lighter skin color in a woman. The findings also showed that "the majority idealized lightness both personally and in terms of assumptions of opposite sex preferences" (Bond & Cash, 1992, p. 876).

Moreover, psychological ramifications for Black women may result from the residuals of sexism, racism, daily stressors, and past experiences (Harris, 1994). Therefore, the relationship of the body image attitude issues of Black females is more psychologically and socially complex than for the White female.

Where has gender and body image played a more powerful role than in the media? In fact, according to Thompson (1990), "authors have recently begun to examine the powerful effects of the mass media" (p. 44). Advertisers quickly

learned that targeting the female's desire for idealism (Freedman, 1988) enhanced their success in selling products.

Furthermore, "a cursory review of media images and advertisements, particularly those targeting African American consumers, continues to advertise products that offer the promise of altering African Americans' physical characteristics" (Comez-Diaz & Green, 1996, p. 19). The advertised products focus on conformity of one's physicalness, emphasizing thinness, attractiveness, and compliance to social norms, especially for females. Also noted in the study by Amato and Booth (1991) is the influence that the media has on the creation of stereotyped gender role development in children, particularly those growing up in fatherless homes.

Research by Nasser (1988) stated that "this emphasis on thinness is evidenced by the number of low calorie diets on the market and the many establishments for losing weight, as well as the massive increase in the articles and advertisements on dieting and slimming in women's magazines and the media" (p. 574). The underlying message is one of acceptance and even accomplishment and reward. For the vulnerable adolescent seeking acceptance, experiencing abandonment or at least disengagement, establishing an identity, and defining her sexuality, the media's answer to acceptance is enticing.

The racial and stereotypical messages about Black women's bodies are numerous. Stereotypes abound from slavery time suggesting African American women are sexually promiscuous, sexually aggressive, morally loose, independent, strong, and assertive (Comez-Diaz & Green, 1996). The authors further noted that as the Mammy, the Black woman was alternately stereotyped as being sexually unappealing, obese, unkempt dirty, very dark, assertive in a safe and protective mothering way, and often loyal to the slave masters. The ultimate body image message was that she was unattractive and undesirable but safe.

Studies on body image have not explored the dynamics which this racial body image history brings to the table for African American women today. Marshall (1997) stated that "racism thrives between our ears and expresses itself in a variety of fight/flight rituals directed at anything that is definitely African American be that our hair color, or our culture." Furthermore, the "discord between perceptions of self and cultural ideal" (Fallon, 1990, p. 107) creates a dual existence.

Body image evaluation is different for Blacks because of the psychosocial cultural influences and the dominance of the media, racism, and stereotyping, which uniquely contribute to one's blackness. Body image reflects the

cultural attitudes and beliefs about size (Bowen et al., 1991).

Recognition of the Black body persona as the embodiment of self and all the micro and macro racist experiences that keep one's blackness in the forefront is essential. The racial obviousness does not play as significant a role for Whites, as they are psychologically reinforced and socially enmeshed.

#### Body Image: Gender and Physical Appearance

Much of the body image literature focuses on females and female body image dysfunction (Fields, 1983). This may be a result of gender differences in how the body is perceived by both males and females and by society as a whole.

Research literature indicates that while men and women may not differ in that they experienced body dissatisfaction, they do differ in what they find dissatisfaction with. For women it may be body weight and thinness, and for men it may be a desire to be heavier (Cash & Brown, 1989; Keeton et al., in press).

A study by Cash and Brown (1989) examined how body image differs for males and females. Using the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire, the findings indicated misperceptions of body image to be more

distorted for women by both men and women. This may result from societal values and emphases on gender stereotypes for female attractiveness.

Another study by Thompson (1990) found the body image views of males to not be as poor as those of females. The consequences of this attitude depict women as tending to be more dysfunctional than men in body image issues (e.g., perceptions of weight and beauty).

Research by Clifford (1971) further supported this. However, Kurtz (1969) demonstrated the opposite, showing that the female's awareness and focus on the body may in fact allow her greater acceptability of it, whereas the expectations are more restrained for males. Kurtz (1969, p. 628) asserted: "Association of the masculinity-femininity dimension with body attitude will probably be most pronounced in the adolescent and young adult age range."

It is likely that body image occurs within a cultural context (Cash & Brown, 1987; Harris, 1987; Kurtz, 1969). Cultures purvey gender-specific standards for physical attractiveness, body weight, and body image (Fallon, 1990; Thomas, 1988). In fact, as indicated earlier, few research findings have suggested that in relation to Euro-American women, African American women may develop healthier body images and less eating disturbances (Thomas, 1988). Studies also suggest that relative to Whites, Blacks report more



favorable attitudes toward their overall appearance--largely, it seems, as a result of less concern with fatness (Bond & Cash, 1992; Rucker & Cash, in press).

African American fathers also influence female gender role behavior more than do mothers (Burlew, 1982), and gender role orientation has been shown to relate to body attitudes (Harris, 1985, 1994).

### Body Image and Self-Esteem

"Self-esteem may be defined as the positive or negative feelings an individual has about herself" (Smith et al., 1991, p. 270). Furthermore, studies by Secourd and Jourard (1954), Cash and Green (1986), Padin et al. (1981), Thomas (1988), Thornton, Orbach, and Axinn (1995), and Rauste-Von Wright (1988) have shown that there is a positive relationship between self-esteem and satisfaction with physical appearance.

Who and what one's reference group is defines a significant variable affecting the relationship between one's appearance and self-esteem. For African Americans, the civil rights period created a rise in their self-consciousness. African American women became more comfortable wearing natural hairstyles and less focused on White physical features, thereby emphasizing pride in their Africentric physical traits.

Smith et al. (1991) explored the relationships of satisfaction with physical appearance, Black consciousness, and self-esteem. Using the Body-Self Relations Questionnaire, they examined the attitudes of African American female college students ( $n = 152$ ). A moderate relationship was found to exist between physical appearance and Black consciousness, whereas a strong correlation existed between self-esteem and satisfaction with both facial and overall appearance.

Consistent with these findings were results from a study by Harris (1984) on body image satisfaction among Black woman. The data showed similar findings. In fact, self-concept theorists have suggested that dissatisfaction with any particular domain of one's self will result in lower self-esteem (Thomas, 1990).

Padin et al. (1981) have also investigated the relationship between body attitude of late adolescents and self-esteem. They assessed the body and self attitudes of adolescent females ( $n = 96$ ) and adolescent female undergraduate students ( $n = 96$ ) using scales which measured body characteristics and 16 bipolar dimensions. The dependent body image variables included items like physical attractiveness, physical effectiveness, and self-esteem. The majority (97%) was White. The conclusion was that the body image stability remained stable for the adolescent over the

8-week period. One is forced to consider whether the impact of stress or significant life change (absentee father) for an African American adolescent female affects their body image stability.

Research on the significance between father-daughter relationships, body image, and self-esteem has been limited. Books such as The Father Daughter Dance by Barbara Goulter and Joan Minnenger (1993) and Women and Their Fathers by Victoria Secunda (1992) have emerged, showing a trend toward better understanding the father-daughter interpersonal dynamics. Topics cross the spectrum from successful fathering to abuse and abandonment.

A correlation exists between healthy adolescent development and parenting style, involvement, and interaction. Research reported earlier by Cooney and Kurtz (1996) emphasized the importance of father's effect on adjustment. They stated that "thus it may be the father-child relations rather than mother-child relations that make the critical difference in the adjustment of adult offspring" (p. 510). It further evidences the significant role of paternal engagement in the child's development.

Results netted from a recent study indicated several conclusions (Chubb et al., 1997). They found female self-esteem to be lower than that of males during late adolescence and indicated that this was true in most

studies. For females this occurred primarily between the 9th and 10th grades. The same thing was found true for their locus of control, which was more external for each during the concurrent periods.

There is some question as to the applicability of the Chubb et al. (1997) study to the African American population because the sampled population was 95% White. Also, the authors indicated there is evidence of a difference in problems relating to self-esteem for African American girls.

The review of body image literature demonstrated a spectrum of variables to consider when discussing body image and self-esteem. Described were: relationships between self-esteem and satisfaction with physical appearance; Black consciousness and self-esteem; physical attractiveness, physical effectiveness, and self-esteem; and body image stability and self-esteem.

Research literature attests to the fact that there is a significant relationship between body image and self-esteem (Davis, 1994; Padin et al., 1981). Further emphasized was the importance of the family role in the development of eating disorders and self-esteem.

Body Image and African American Adult  
and Adolescent Females

What is most apparent in reviewing literature on body image and African American females is the difference in how Black and White females view themselves. Several studies have found African American adult and adolescent females to have greater satisfaction with their bodies and less concern about weight gain (Bowen et al., 1991; Harris, 1995a, 1995b; Nasser, 1988; Rucker & Cash, 1991; Smith et al., 1991).

In fact, the same thing was indicated for Mexican, Hispanic, Asian, and Native American females (Bowen et al., 1991). This is not to say that Blacks are disinvested in seeking an attractive body image, for what business thrives more than the beauty and nail shop in the Black community? It suggests that their body image variables are different from what has been examined.

Because of the paucity of research on the adolescent and adult African American female, there is little literature addressing other factors critical to conceptualizing her body image attitudes. This also holds true of the assessment tools.

In all probability, the interpretation of body image issues for African American women is more a result of inadequately examined variables. Harris (1995b) supported this in her statement: "Non-white women's attitudes toward

their bodies have not been adequately examined in empirical studies" (p. 129).

The problem then arises in determining if existing studies reporting more positive body image attitudes of Black women are actually giving valid impressions. In fact, Rucker and Cash (1992) suggested that "while African American women are surrounded by the same majority culture standards, a different set of body image criteria and influences may exist" (p. 297). Those influences included family and significant others, among other things.

Black females must contend with images of unrelated beauty and physical values through the media and other societal propaganda. The ability to do so demonstrates their adaptability to the internal and external macro stressors of life. Perhaps the commonality of not being part of the dominant culture affects attitudes about obesity and food (Bowen et al., 1991).

From a research standpoint, some scientific introspection might lead one to reexamine the efficacy of existing measures of Black women's body image variables (e.g., skin color and hair texture, cultural beliefs about weight, and interpersonal family dynamics). Previous research has provided a portal through which to view the body image issue for the Black female.

Results of a study examining gender, class, and race differences in weight concluded that weight is affected by these variables (Bowen et al., 1991). What are of interest are the factors leading to weight attitudes for Whites, Blacks, and Mexican Hispanics. The issue with weight for Whites was about being lean. For Blacks and Hispanics, heaviness in body image was related to cultural attitude over food and size. Furthermore, they perceive themselves as not being as heavy.

Body image attitude has been described as one's feelings of satisfaction with his or her appearance. For the daughter of the disengaged father, a reenactment of fears of being reabandoned (Fields, 1983) places her on the "relationship Junkie" (Secunda, 1992, p. 213) treadmill, continuously questioning how she appears to herself and to others. Sexual anxiety, father substitutes (often older men), fear of dependence (especially financial) on a man, fear of independence, never able to be alone, and coping with pain through emotional detachment are but some of the more common psychological responses these women experience (Fields, 1983; Schierse-Leonard, 1985; Secunda, 1992). The consequences can be long-lasting and far-reaching. Some experts believe that "daughters experience a 'sleeper effect' of father absence which doesn't show up until they

embark on adolescent and adult heterosexual relationships" (Secunda, 1992, p. 198).

Although the ramifications of a poor relationship or a disengaged relationship with the father may not show up until later in life (Secunda, 1992), the psychological and emotional needs for a sense of connection (Frank, Pirsch, & Wright, 1990) with the parent remain unfulfilled or perpetually sought after. Secunda (1992) stated that "numerous studies point to the fact that a woman's capacity for a mutually loving and sexually fulfilling attachment is directly related to her relationship to her father" (p. xvi).

Thomas (1988) has described body image as "an individual's body image, or mental picture of their body, as well as his or her satisfaction with this image" (p. 107). Body image has also been referred to as body concept or conceptual image and includes the perceptions, thoughts, and feelings which the ego has in reference to viewing its own body (Campbell, 1996).

The latter supports the plausibility that for the Black woman, the body conceptualization perceptions, thoughts, and feelings utilized by the ego as a reference are flexible, adaptable, and at times conflictual. According to Davis (1994), studies such as the one in 1991 by Boyd-Franklin concluded that Black women must learn to regulate



the effects of continual exposure to a defined White ideal of beauty on their sense of self.

### Conceptualizing Disengagement

#### Disengagement

For the purpose of this study, a disengaged father refers to a father not living in the home and who has not had direct physical contact with his daughter for at least 1 month or more for at least 1 year or more. To conceptualize disengagement requires delineating the different types of father absence and the type of relationship that exists with the child(ren). Also important is an understanding of those things that support the conditions for disengagement.

Disengagement may result from a father's decision to abdicate parental responsibilities based on high cost of time, money (Seltzer, 1991), and conflict with the mother (Secunda, 1992). It may also occur as the result of drug use, poor health, second families, incarceration, or lack of commitment and responsibility. Often it is a combination of factors (Herzog & Sudia, 1973).

Disengaged fathers include those who never married and those who have married and left. Both have disconnected from their relationship with their children. This writer must warn the reader to clearly understand there is a difference

between the father not present in the home and the disengaged father, in particular when referencing African American fathers. The reason for this is that historically, since slavery and through the northern migration, the African American father has at times subscribed to a lack of father presence family structure through displacement, often mandatory. Though less frequent today and more because of systemic and social enigmas, the lack of a father presence does not necessarily constitute poor father engagement.

Census information on the structure and composition of the African American family showed a total count of 29,846,000 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1998). The data indicated that 39% of African American children live with both parents, 61% live with one parent, 56% live with the mother only, and 4% live with the father only (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1998). White families with children living with both parents is 79.0% (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1998). "Nearly half of all children born in recent decades will spend at least part of a childhood living in a single mother household" (Bumpass & Sweet, 1989, quoted in Seltzer, 1991, p. 79).

Family structure change cannot be credited solely to divorce. There has also been change in the attitude toward unmarried births which has shown a jump in numbers. Therefore, disengagement results from divorce, the father

not having lived in the home, and selective abandonment. Because the majority of research material available on disengaged fathers addresses the divorced population, it serves as this study's primary source of reference.

The divorce rate has restructured what was considered the norm for a traditional family makeup, not only redefining it (Seltzer, 1991) but altering the roles and relationships of each member (Eggebeen, Snyder, & Manning, 1996). "More than nineteen percent (about twelve million) of the children of America live in fatherless homes at any given moment, and an even higher percentage is fatherless for a significant part of their childhood" (Fields, 1983, p. 63).

Seltzer (1991) examined parental contact patterns after disengagement. She discussed patterns of father involvement once he has left home. The results show "a diminishment of contact for most children ranging from 30% not seeing the father during the past year to 60% saw them several times or less during the year" (p. 85). She extrapolated the information from the 1983 National Survey of Children done by Furstenberg et al. Statistics showed that if a father does not maintain a good relationship with his children during the first 2 years after leaving home, the chance of his building the relationship weakens significantly.

Seltzer (1991) indicated that predivorce paternal participation was sustained after divorce. However, another study by Kruk (1991) showed an inverse relationship of parental predivorce roles to parental postdivorce roles. Fathers who were not close to their children before the divorce tended to seek to strengthen the bonds, while fathers who were close lessened their bonds or developed second families as priorities. The reason for this was an inability to adapt to the new and often unclearly defined role of nonresident father they must now play. Fields (1983) indicated that "girls growing up without fathers suffer more drug addiction, alcoholism, reactive depression, and suicide attempts" (p. 63).

Effects of a broken home depend on a myriad of dynamics which affect how the child perceives the disengagement (e.g., how unusual it is in their community, fathers' involvement in children's activities, economic values, and repercussions from reduced income). Factors affecting the child's attitude about father's disengagement includes mother's ability to cope, financial social support systems, and mother's attitude toward father.

Treatment of divorced mothers in group and family therapy indicated a complexity of feelings resulting from the divorce; they included: anxiety, frustration, guilt,

anger toward the ex-husband, worry about their children's adaptation, and mother's stability (Herzog & Sudia, 1973).

In her research on father-daughter relationships, Fields (1983) indicated most research on father absence has been on males around the issue of identification needs. However, the daughter experiences disengagement differently because she is "constantly seeking the 'hiding father'" (p. 65). Her feelings of abandonment and rejection result in idealizing the father as a means to identify with him (Schierse-Leonard, 1985; Seconda, 1992).

While the effect of divorce/father disengagement on families and children has been researched, very little exists on the African American female adolescent. Therefore, indications point to a need for increased understanding of the impact of this phenomenon between daughter and father.

Davis (1994) indicated in her study on "Women's Attitudes Toward Their Fathers: Relationship to Body Image Self-Esteem" that "ethnic difference in attitude toward fathers may reflect the fact that ethnic minority women, particularly African American and Hispanic women, were more likely than women from middle income families to be referring to non-biological fathers" (p. 39).

Most divorce studies have focused on issues such as the differences in response to divorce by boys and girls (Spigellman & Spigellman, 1991), the effects of parental

divorce on children's personality (White et al., 1985), and the effects of marital disruption on child's attachment to parents (Cooney & Kurtz, 1996).

The focus has primarily been on coping with the change and adjustment to the different family structure and has been less concerned with the impact on the adolescent's feelings about self that affect the multifaceted developmental process (Hess & Camara, 1979; Slater & Haber, 1984).

In a study on late adolescence and parent relationships, researchers Frank et al. (1990) concluded that adolescents with increased distance from parents tended to demonstrate more autonomy through self-governance while feeling more insecure and in need of parent approval. Those who were closer to their parents and felt less insecure presented higher self-esteem (Fullinwider-Bush & Jacobitz, 1993).

If implications are that feelings of insecurity and self-satisfaction linked to body attitude are affected by adaptation in relationships for healthy adjustment in adolescents, then disengagement by a significant other may prove to be detrimental.

In divorce issues the interpersonal identity development and individuation process can be sped up, resulting in an adolescent who exhibits more emotional,

attitudinal, and functional independence from the father (Allen, Stoltenburg, & Rosko, 1990). As a consequence, reduced attachment to the noncustodial/detached parent may occur (Allen et al., 1990).

"Divorce affects primary bonds with parents, presents challenges to conceptions of social reality, and creates stress which interferes with normal development" (Hess & Camara, 1979, p. 79). Moreover, the familial variable is critical because, although weight may play a very significant role in body image evaluation (Steininger, Garcia, & Garcia, 1988), other dynamics such as interactions with others can influence body image satisfaction.

Sullivan (1953) further theorized that adolescents' mental image of themselves as well as their satisfaction with this image is not created in a vacuum. It is affected by the integration of many variables, the parent-child relationship being one of the strongest influences on development through childhood and adolescence.

This is especially salient for adolescent females seeking appropriate feedback from the nonresident disengaged father in order to establish boundaries from which to evaluate their body image. In fact, this is evidenced by the research of Thomas (1988), which showed that African American women's body image evaluation was significantly influenced by the men in their lives.

Other research supported the premise that the divorce change status of the nonresident disengaged father not present in the adolescent's life can affect the individual's interpersonal development. McCurdy and Scherman (1996) noted in their study that research by Amato and Booth (1991) found children of divorce report less contact with their fathers. The difference was greater for females than for males.

Forehand and Nousaianen (1993) suggested in their study that (a) the role of the father had been understated and that (b) the level of acceptance and closeness by the father is a significant factor in both their parenting relationship and school functioning for the adolescent.

This study is not suggesting that the disengaged father is the only variable determining the daughter's attitude about her body image, but just as a present father impacts his daughter's feelings about herself, so does the father not present.

One must be careful not to categorize all daughters with disengaged fathers as exhibiting specific body image attitudes regardless of reasons for disengagement, even though most literature has indicated that their self-esteem is related to their fathers and mothers. "A number of the studies reviewed suggest a need for viewing the father's absence in the perspective of the family as a complex organism set within and interacting with a complex social,



economic, and cultural organism" (Herzog & Sudia, 1973, p. 207).

### Fathers

In a study by McCurdy and Scherman (1996), the researchers found that there was a high association between adolescents' attachment to the father and their self-esteem. Results from a study by Thomas (1988) on body image satisfaction among Black women showed the women's reports of their significant others' perceptions were probably related to their body-image satisfaction and significantly influenced by the women's judgment of the perceptions of significant men in their lives.

In a study on "Women's Attitudes Towards Their Fathers," Davis (1994) found a significant relationship between type of father figure and attitude toward father and self-esteem. Goulter and Minnenger (1993) stated that "fathers are the first men that daughters ever love. Fathers teach what men are and what sort of treatment daughters can expect from them. They give the first inkling of what the world of men expects from women" (p. 17). This was also supported by Fields (1983).

According to Harris (1985, p. 140), "fathers have been found to express more antipathy toward unattractive children than attractive children." How a female child believes she

sees her father affects not only how she sees herself as a child but as an adult. It is also how she measures her femininity.

The level of education variable has also been found to affect the parenting style of African American men, influencing the role they play in their daughters' developmental attitude toward their body (Harris, 1985). "The increase in family support accompanying father's education may reflect differences in gender expectations as a function of father's social class, specifically father's education" (Sewell & Shah, 1968, p. 137).

Results from research by Cooney and Kurtz (1996) found females from divorced homes described themselves as being seen as needing or wanting professional help and experiencing greater levels of depression, along with having less intimacy with their father. Significant were the findings that the female's reaction to divorce was more significant than the male's, and the depression was tied in more closely to the father-child relations than mother-child relations. The implication was that the father has more to do with predicting child adjustment. Perhaps it is this alienation that creates the foundation for other interpersonal obstacles ultimately impacting their attitude about self-image.

Understanding the father's relationship to the adolescent female's body image must address the scope of the father's role. It is as diverse as each family, yet there are some universals. Fathers teach values and risk-taking behaviors (Davis, 1994; Fields, 1993; McAdoo, 1993; Seltzer, 1991). McAdoo (1993) further indicated that the role of the African American father encompasses supporting his spouse, providing protection and financial support, socializing and setting values for his children, and collectively making decisions.

In an article by Randolph (1997) in Ebony magazine's "Sisterspeak" column, she discussed the results of a new relationship study by Belinda Tucker. According to Randolph (1997), the study results showed that the majority of men polled sought a wife who had money and beauty, not necessarily in that order. The implication is that a Black woman's desirability depends on her attractiveness and possible financial stability, again reinforcing the external importance of image. Furthermore, if studies such as Tucker's show African American men to be programmed through the media, social, and cultural systems to prefer African American women with European and African combined features, how then does the father pass on those preferences to his daughter?

Research on the effects of the absent disengaged fathers has revealed: (a) "Absence of fathers [is] associated with inadequate development with sex typed behavior" (Hess & Camara, 1979, p. 83); (b) "Fathers' interactions with sons tended to be longer, more often, with more in between visits contact" (Hess & Camara, 1979, p. 93); and (c) sons use fathers as a same sex-role model, while daughters use fathers to modulate their relationships with other males.

### Mothers

Significant attention has been paid to the role mothers have played in the identity development of daughters. This may be a result of mothers traditionally being seen as the primary caretaker of children and setting the role model for them (McAdoo, 1993). What has also occurred is that the mother often is seen as to blame for the problems of the child. The concern arises as to what influence, if any, the father has and what the significant aspects of his role are. Furthermore, can and does the mother automatically fulfill both roles if the father is disengaged?

"The lives of children in both two parent and one parent families are strongly pervaded by women" (Herzog & Sudia, 1973, p. 218). Regardless of what research has shown

or failed to show about the harm done by lack of a resident father, "observations and experience suggest that both boys and girls can benefit by contact with adult members of both sexes whom they can respect and like" (Herzog & Sudia, 1973, p. 218).

### Body Image: Family and Parenting

The family is the foundation through which children develop positive and negative attitudes about themselves and their bodies (Brouwers, 1990). Research has found that appearance evaluation, body area satisfaction, and total body dissatisfaction were most consistently related to the family, self, and sociocultural variables (Harris, 1985). Perhaps part of the reason behind this lies in the fact that one's sense of self is linked to the individual's sense of connectedness with others (Fullinwider-Bush & Jacobitz, 1993).

Whether the influence is greater by mother or father is not salient to this study because it is not concerned with the relationship between the two. Nor is it concerned with the marital or divorced status of the parents, only with the disengagement by the father from the daughter. Research has, however, repeatedly found a significant relationship between the parents' marital status, the

parent-adolescent relations, and the adolescent's well being (Forehand & Nousaianen, 1993; McCurdy & Scherman, 1996).

Several studies on Black women's body image attitude linked the dimensions of social competencies, family, racial identity, class, gender, and sex roles (Bowen et al., 1991; Harris, 1994, 1995a, 1995b).

A study by Fullinwider-Bush and Jacobitz (1993) discussed boundary dissolution of mothers and fathers and the effects on daughter's identity development. They demonstrated that daughters experienced identity diffusion as a result of boundary dissolution with their fathers. Daughters who experienced poor boundary dissolution with their mothers showed identity development that was compromised when forcing her into an early parent-like role.

Kruk's (1994) study on father disengagement and the divorced family emphasized the importance of staying connected for fathers on a consistent basis. His results showed that fathers who did not maintain a consistent relationship, especially during the first 6 months after leaving the home, tended to become totally disengaged from their children's lives.

The primary relationship for the adolescent is the family; therefore, the dependency and anxiety she experiences is rooted in the dynamics of the primary relationship. Cooney and Kurtz (1996) indicated in their

research on the psychological affects of divorce on children that "theoretically, the study of parental divorce during early adulthood is of interest because of the preferred view today that the developmental tasks of this life stage--individuation and identity development--are most successfully accomplished within the context of continued connection to others, particularly parents" (p. 497).

Understanding the father's relationship to the adolescent female's body image requires understanding the significance of the father's role as part of her connection to others. It is as diverse as each family, yet there are dimensions such as acceptance that is more critical than others (Forehand & Nousaianen, 1993).

#### Body Image Theoretical Concepts: Africentric and Eurocentric Approaches

Review of theoretical concepts and body image literature exposed two components. The first is the psychoanalytic approach, which looks at developmental issues, and the second is a sociocultural approach, which looks at the consequences of social and cultural indoctrination.

The psychoanalytic approaches of theories such as Freud's psychosexual, or neo-Freudians like Erikson, Sullivan, and Horney, emphasized the relationship of the

body to the body ego or ego-like concept (Padin et al., 1981). Erik Erikson's theoretical model emphasized the influence of social factors on personality development. It proposed that female adolescents experiencing a state of identity diffusion would display more anxiety than female adolescents would in any phase of identity development. It is a state in which the individual is uncertain about the relationship of past and present to self, thereby creating tension and anxiety, along with a stronger dependency on others for self definition (Muuss, 1988).

However, the application of Erikson's identity development was most frequently presented as an appropriate model (Harris, 1995a; Jackson, 1996; Thomas, 1988). The role of anxiety is seen as having a significant influence on the development of personality on the person's self, similar to Freud's concept of ego. Sullivan believed that a person's biological needs had to be taken care of first. However, the basis of an individual's behavior is to avoid anxiety by seeking relationships which provide security. Sullivan's psychosocial model of adolescent personality development expressed the importance of building a foundation for healthy interpersonal experiences in order for adolescents to transition into healthy adults.

Like Sullivan, Horney focused on the interpersonal family relationships and was concerned with the significance



of the social domain once biologically satisfied. She found that an individual's personality development is shaped through intimate components of the family relationship. The goal for the individual is to feel protected.

The field of body image supports utilizing a sociocultural theoretical rationale (Thompson, 1990). Research by Bond and Cash (1992) discussed the Ideal Discrepancy Theory, which has a sociocultural foundation. The Self-Ideal Discrepancy Theory compares the individual's discrepancy between actual size and ideal size. Bond and Cash's (1992) description of the sociocultural theoretical framework suggested that there is discrepancy between an individual's cognitive internalization of sociocultural standards of the ideal self and actual self.

Freedman (1988) researched the use of cognitive therapy, as did Thompson (1990), who supported cognitive behavioral therapeutic approaches for the treatment of body image treatment for dissatisfaction with appearance and weight. The goal was to modify negative thoughts and replace them with healthy behaviors that were self-reinforcing.

Thompson (1990), also a sociocultural theorist, indicated that "the most supported theoretical explanation for our society's large level of body image disturbance is the sociocultural approach" (p. 42). He supported the findings of Bond and Cash (1990) emphasizing the

indoctrination of sociocultural values in the development of body image ideals and distortions.

Other theoretical approaches include the Adaptive Failure Theory, which focuses on the individual's perceptions of size and adjustments to body weight changes, and the Perceptual Artifact Theory, which looks at size relationship to overestimation, particularly in anorexics (Thompson, 1990). Each is focused on the relationship of body image to the individual's body image distortions. Theoretically, they appear to be somewhat more cognitively influenced.

The schism of thought and behavior rather than the integration and holistic approach in addressing body image issues is apparent in the Eurocentric theoretical concepts. The Eurocentric theories conceptualized the development of body and mind as two separate entities that work with each other, the unique individual and the creative self. Their focus is on the individual parts versus the whole.

The psychodynamic theoretical approach resides primarily within a Eurocentric context; however, the sociocultural theoretical modalities are encompassing of both the Eurocentric and Africentric perspective for treatment. Because this study is examining the body image of African American adolescent females, it is important to consider the conceptual perspective relative to both. In

fact, both support the basic premise that the adolescents' body image evolves from their interaction with significant others in their life.

The adolescent's body image attitude is, in essence, the development of a oneness of being. It was defined earlier as one's physical link to the environment. In an article by Cedric X (McGee, Nobles, & Akbar, 1976), they described "oneness of being" as a being "rooted in the nature of Black culture which is fundamentally African."

While literature on Black psychology was available (Akbar, 1991), literature on Africentric modalities of treatment specific to body image was not. There appear to be several reasons for this, the first being that research has shown body image issues as being primarily a White phenomenon and, second, body image is seen as having little relevancy to the reality of most Blacks' lives. The first may be very legitimate, taking into consideration the historical unidimensionalistic nature of body image research.

The latter seems to indicate the severe need to reconsider and conceptualize what truly describes body image issues for African Americans. One can consider the multitudes of descriptions placed on African Americans since slavery and the relationship to how they physically perceived themselves and were perceived by others.

Nomenclature ranged from Negro to Black to African American, with a wide variety in between. The importance of recognizing the cultural and historical evolution of Blacks as a people must be acknowledged for its relevance to their psychological functioning and body image attitude development.

Due to the lack of specific body image theoretical Africentric approaches, it behooves this study to emphasize the theoretical and philosophical consideration of the philosophical foundations inherent to an African-based culture, such as the interplay between the environment and the physical.

A review of literature on Black psychology reveals the importance of giving theoretical attention to culturally specific criteria, which include the relationship of physical self to nature, the foundation of spirituality to one's sense of self, and the defining of one's consciousness through connection with others.

Both Africentric and Eurocentric sociocultural perspectives provide theoretical rationale for studying body image. The modalities found to be most appropriate are those which incorporate the interpersonal, cultural, and social development of the adolescent. They include but are not limited to essentiality of history, including that of slavery and the Black family, along with social factors and

the positive as well as the negative influences on the developmental process of Blacks.

Although an assortment of theoretical approaches emphasize the sociocultural approach as an effective intervention, according to Thompson (1990), more body image research is needed to develop psychotherapeutic interventions in the field.

### Body Image Assessment

Methods of assessing body image disturbances have grown in recent years. The assessment of body image is concerned mainly with the evaluation of body image disturbances, which include anorexia/bulimia nervosa, body dysmorphia, and weight-related problems.

Assessment tools include questionnaires, such as the MBSRQ, size estimation techniques, mirror focusing, and figural ratings. The primary body image assessment focus has been on "size perception accuracy (estimation of body size) and a subjective component which entails aspects such as body size, weight and physical appearance" (Thompson, 1990, p. 55).

Thompson (1990) further stated that more recently constructed indices for assessing the affective, cognitive, subjective body image issues have emerged. His book on Body Image Disturbances, Assessment and Treatment reviewed the

spectrum of instruments available, approaching first by types, use, multidimensionalism, and practicality. He supported the need to validate body image research by incorporating multidimensionalism.

Instruments that dealt with perceptual components of body image disturbance centered on measurements of size. The instruments assessed size estimation for accuracy and relationship between two body points (e.g., right side of waist to left side of waist). They included the Moveable Caliper Technique (MCT) or the Body Image Detection Device, where the subjects estimated their size using calipers or light projected onto a wall to indicate the perceived body size. What they are looking at is how much the participants adjust their perceived size to their actual size.

Another measurement of perception utilizes videotapes from which the individuals matched figures that they perceive most closely resembled their own. The perceptual measurements have not proven always to be reliable.

Assessment of body image has tended to focus on issues of body weight and body disorders. In fact, Thompson (1990) indicated that the field of body image has significantly developed its assessment capabilities. The problem has become one of substance rather than scope, for there is still relatively little assessment or assessment research in the area of adolescent and culturally specific tools. What

prevails are tools to measure traditional concepts of body image.

## CHAPTER 3

### METHODOLOGY

The methodology chapter provides an outline of the research subject selection, design, and description of instrumentation.

#### Subjects

Subjects consisted of a convenience sample of 78 participants. Participants were assessed for appropriateness and screened in as a result of responses to a prescreening questionnaire. Homogeneity of race, age, educational level, gender, and father disengagement were prerequisites. Ineligibility resulted from living in the same residence with the father, and father absence due to job or military service, school, or hospitalization.

The criteria for subjects were as follows: African American adolescent females age 13 through 17, from Fulton County Juvenile Court and Douglass High School Parent-Teacher-Student Association, and having disengaged fathers. The disengagement may be due to divorce,



separation, absenteeism (unavailable, not due to legal or reasons other than choice), abandonment, or never married.

### Procedures

The following procedures were observed to conduct the research.

1. The researcher obtained permission (Appendix A) from the Upward Bound Program Administration, Fulton County Court Administration, and Douglass High School Parent-Teacher-Student Association for access to adolescent population.

2. The researcher explained the research project to staff and counselors and scheduled class time to meet with potential participants.

3. The researcher and assistant introduced the project to potential subjects at the designated time, giving a general description of the study's purpose. It was explained that the general purpose of the study was to better understand how relationships impact a female's feelings about her appearance. Individuals were further informed that an important criterion for participating in the project was that their father must not live in the home years.

4. Participants meeting the basic criteria of being female and their father not living in the home and who had expressed an interest in participating were asked to

complete a brief data sheet (Appendix B), to be turned in at that time. They were also given a parent/participant packet to bring home (or to have a parent complete on site) and complete with their parent/guardian. The packet included a participant information/consent/confidentiality/rights letter, a parent information letter, and a parent/guardian consent letter (Appendix C).

5. The letters contained information on consent, confidentiality, and participant right to withdraw from the study at any time. All material requiring signatures were to be signed by parents/guardians, and subjects then returned forms to the researcher. Subjects were informed of the purpose of each form and given a phone number for additional information.

6. All forms were collected and coded using birth dates and street address number.

7. Eligible students were separated from the others. They were asked to complete the self-report demographic questionnaire as well as the MBSRQ. It was important to inform participants to place their birth date and street number at the top of the survey and MBSRQ. There was no specific time limitation for completion.

8. Completed MBSRQs were collected by the researcher and checked for the birth date and street number code, then placed in corresponding coded envelopes.

9. An analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to determine statistically significant differences between variables of body image, attitude, paternal disengagement, and paternal engagement/contact.

### Measures

#### Demographic Survey Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire, which was developed by the author, was completed for the purpose of soliciting information on the paternal disengagement, paternal contact/engagement and the participant's family. The information included father's time disengaged and frequency of contact after the disengagement.

Questionnaires were also used to extrapolate other significant family information. That included family size, daughter's age at disengagement, attempted contacts, and income source.

The demographic survey (Appendix D) consisted of 20 questions which sought to extrapolate information in order: (a) to obtain background information on the participant's family; (b) to obtain background information on the participant; (c) to assess the paternal disengagement; (d) to obtain information on paternal engagement through amount of contact; and (e) to obtain comparative evaluation by the participant of "Femininity" and "Potential"

self-ratings. The data were correlated with the results of the MBSRQ comparing father disengagement with body satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

#### Description of the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (MBSRQ)

The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (see Appendix E) was the tool that was selected to measure the body image attitude of participants (Brown et al., 1990; Cash et al., 1986). The MBSRQ is a 69-item self-report inventory that is used to assess attitudinal dispositions toward the physical self (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990).

The MBSRQ consists of 69 items that assess multidimensional attitudinal aspects of body image. The 10 factor subscales evaluate physical appearance, health and physical fitness, and weight-related variables. The 10 subscales are: Appearance Evaluation, Appearance Orientation, Fitness Evaluation, Fitness Orientation, Health Evaluation, Health Orientation, and Illness Orientation; the Body Areas Satisfaction Scale (BASS); and Self-Classified Weight and Overweight Preoccupation. The BASS examines satisfaction with specific aspects of the body such as hair, eyes, and buttocks.

Responses are solicited using a 5-point Likert scale, with participant's range of satisfaction rated from

Definitely Disagree (1) to Definitely Agree (5). A higher score corresponds to a higher body image attitude.

The measure also evaluates factors such as the individual's feelings and degree of cognitive and behavioral investment. It allows for the measurement of body image attitude from three domains, affective, cognitive, and behavioral, toward one's body.

The six weight-related items of the MBSRQ, although included for this study, were not examined because weight was not a focus of this study.

#### Selection of MBSRQ

The subscales that measure Appearance Evaluation and Body Areas Satisfaction (BASS) on the MBSRQ were especially salient for the purpose of this study because they assess the individual's feelings of physical attractiveness or unattractiveness and satisfaction or dissatisfaction with appearance (Appendix E). The BASS emphasizes more discrete aspects of one's appearance (Cash, 1994). It is simple to administer and, according to Cash and Pruzinsky (1990), has been normed against a population that included adolescents and African Americans.

Furthermore, it offers several advantages for measuring body image. First is its attention to the multidimensional aspect of body image, which takes into

account the cognitive, behavioral, and affective aspects. Furthermore, it gives the researcher a tool to measure both specific and overall body image attitude and perception. The capacity to measure attitude was essential for this study's purpose.

#### MBSRQ Reliability and Validity

The MBSRQ has shown substantial reliability and validity. This has been evidenced by .75 to .92 ranges, which have shown support for this measure (Brown, Cash, & Mikulka, 1990; Thompson, 1994; Winstead & Cash, 1984). The MBSRQ was renormed in 1995 with similar results. It is important for the validity of a measure to be at least .70 for internal consistency and near .90 for reliability. Cash and Pruzinsky (1990) indicated that the MBSRQ has been widely validated as an assessment tool which comprehensively measures the affective, cognitive, and behavioral domains. Furthermore, "A cross-validated factor-analytic study of the original database (Brown, Cash, & Mikulka, 1990) supports the conceptual components of the instrument" (Cash, 1994, p. 1).

The same holds true for reliabilities of the subscales which compose the MBSRQ. On the Cronbach's Alpha scale there was a high test-retest reliability (see chart in Appendix E).

### Design and Data Analysis

The study's design employed several factors leading to a probability that the null hypothesis would be rejected. They included use of: (a) a sample size which has sufficient power, (b) the .05 alpha level for all statistical tests, (c) the MBSRQ measurement for its appropriateness, and (d) a survey questionnaire.

The MBSRQ was employed to evaluate satisfaction, dissatisfaction, and feelings of physical attractiveness or unattractiveness of subjects. All study materials and measures were distributed and administered by the study researcher.

Data analysis occurred in two stages. First, descriptive statistics were utilized to describe the sample population and the characteristics of the father's disengagement. The second analyses focused on the MBSRQ measurement of body image satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

The ANOVA for statistically significant differences was suggested because the study sought to measure the difference between paternal disengagement and body image attitude and between paternal engagement (as determined by physical contact with the daughter) and body image attitude.

The design of the study sought to show sufficient power using an alpha level of .05, a sample group of

approximately 78, and a measurement which has a strong reliability and validity history.



## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

#### Introduction

The sample pool consisted of 78 subjects who completed the Demographic and Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaires. Data collected in the 20-item survey assessed (a) demographics, (b) paternal contact, (c) paternal disengagement, (d) daughter's description of femininity by the father and herself, and (e) daughter's description of her potential.

Responses to the 69-item self-report Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire provided multidimensional attitudinal assessment of body image and weight-related variables using 10 factor subscales (Cash & Brown, 1989). Cash (1994) described them as follows:

1. Appearance Evaluation: Feelings of physical attractiveness or unattractiveness; satisfaction or dissatisfaction with one's looks. High scorers feel mostly positive and satisfied with their appearance; low scorers have a general unhappiness with their physical appearance.

2. Appearance Orientation: Extent of investment in one's appearance. High scorers place importance on how they look, pay attention to their appearance, and engage in extensive grooming behaviors to manage their appearance. Low scorers are apathetic about their physical appearance; their looks are not especially important, and they do not spend much time or energy to look good.

3. Fitness Evaluation: Feelings of being physically fit or unfit. High scorers regard themselves as physically fit, in shape, or athletically competent. Low scorers feel physically unfit, out of shape, or athletically unskilled.

4. Fitness Orientation: Extent of investment in being physically fit or athletically competent. High scorers value fitness and are actively involved in activities to enhance or maintain their fitness. Low scorers do not value physical fitness and do not regularly incorporate exercise activities into their lifestyle.

5. Health Evaluation: Feelings of physical health and/or the freedom from physical illness. High scorers feel their bodies are in good health. Low scorers feel unhealthy or experience bodily symptoms of illness or vulnerability to illness.

6. Health Orientation: Extent of investment in a physical lifestyle. High scorers are health conscious and

try to lead a healthy lifestyle. Low scorers are apathetic about their health.

7. Illness Orientation: Extent of reactivity to being or becoming ill. High scorers are alert to personal symptoms of physical illness and are apt to seek medical attention. Low scorers are not especially alert or reactive to physical symptoms of illness.

Additional MBSRQ subscales are the following:

8. Body-Areas Satisfaction Scale (BASS): Similar to the Appearance Evaluation subscale, except that the BASS taps satisfaction or dissatisfaction with discrete aspects of one's appearance. High composite scorers are generally content with most areas of their body. Low scorers are unhappy with the size or appearance of several areas.

9. Self-Classified Weight: This special scale reflects how one perceives and labels one's weight, from very underweight to very overweight.

10. Overweight Preoccupation: This special scale assesses a construct reflecting fat anxiety, weight vigilance, dieting, and eating restraint.

Participants' completion of the self-report MBSRQ inventory provided data for analysis of body image attitude. This measured self-attitudinal aspects of the body image construct (Cash, 1994). Analysis of the variables of father

disengagement and engagement/contact was obtained from participant responses to the survey.

Two research questions were presented, as follows:

1. Does the body image attitude of African American adolescent females have a relationship to paternal disengagement?

2. Does the body image attitude of African American adolescent females have a relationship to paternal engagement/contact?

The dependent variable was body image attitude, and the independent variable was parental disengagement and engagement/contact.

Comparisons between variables were done using means, modes, medians, frequencies, and percentages which were derived from responses on individual survey items. Frequencies indicate the number of times that subjects respond to items (McCall, 1986). Percentages indicate the relative standing of participants' responses compared to the frequency within the total distribution (McCall, 1986).

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was utilized for data analysis, which enabled the researcher to estimate the statistical significance of differences in group means (McCall, 1986). It was most appropriate for the data analysis because it assessed the statistically significant

differences between body image attitude and paternal disengagement and between body image attitude and parental engagement/contact.

Furthermore, the study addressed the following assumptions and conditions in the use of the ANOVA: (a) a random and independent sampling of the subjects occurred, (b) a normal distribution of the population existed, and (c) the homogeneity of within-group variances.

#### Analysis Results of Demographic Survey

The survey consisted of 20 items. Items 1-6 identified demographic characteristics of age, race, education/grade, family income, and number of siblings. Items 8-17 focused on paternal relationship contact and disengagement. Item 9 was used to evaluate number of years father was not living in the home and disengaged. Item 11 measured father engagement through frequency of contact. Items 18-20 addressed the self-evaluation of femininity and potential by the daughter. Items 18-20 were included in the study because research has identified a significant component of the father-daughter relationship to be his capacity to direct her sense of femininity and potential. Analysis of the 20 demographic survey variables is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Means, Medians, and Modes for Demographic Survey Items

Demographic Variable	Mean	Median	Mode
D1 Age	3.2564 (15 yrs)	3 (15 yrs)	3 (15 yrs)
D2 School grade	3.7895 (10th)	4 (10th)	4 (10th)
D3 Number/gender siblings	2.4347 (sisters)	2 (sisters)	2 (sisters)
D4 Grades	1.5200 (B-C grades)	1 (A-B grades)	1 (A-B grades)
D5 Parent income	2.2750 (\$10,000-24,999)	2 (\$10,000-24,999)	2 (\$10,000-24,999)
D6 Parent income sources	1.4143 (employment)	1 (employment)	1 (employment)
D7 Why no father in home	2.5278 (divorced)	2.5 (divorced)	3 (divorced)
D8 How long father in home	4.4237 (up to 7 yrs)	4 (up to 7 yrs)	4 (up to 7 yrs)
D9 Years father not in home	2.9178 (6-9 yrs)	3 (6-9 yrs)	4 (10+ yrs)
D10 Age when father left	5.4167 years	5 years	1 years
D11 Last contact with father	3.0946 (1-3 mos)	2 (2 wks to 1 mo)	1 (in past week)
D12 Father sees when	3.1169 (infrequently)	3 (infrequently)	5 (never)
D13 How father contacts	1.7808 (indirectly)	1 (calls directly)	1 (calls directly)
D14 Father visitation rights	1.3784 (yes)	1 (yes)	1 (yes)
D15 Maintains visitation	2.0000 (sometimes)	2 (sometimes)	1 (not at all)
D16 Relationship with father	2.6133 (not very strong)	3 (not very strong)	4 (not strong at all)
D17 Closeness of relationship	2.4567 (somewhat close)	2 (somewhat close)	4 (not close at all)
D18 Describe self as	1.3766 (very feminine)	1 (very feminine)	1 (very feminine)
D19 Father describe as	1.4865 (very feminine)	1 (very feminine)	1 (very feminine)
D20 Work to full potential	1.8289 (most of time)	2 (most of time)	2 (most of time)

Table 2 presents a summary of frequencies and percentage ratings for the demographic variables. Individual item analysis resulted in the following responses.

Question 1, Participant's age. Age response choices were 13, 14, 15, 16, and 17 years. Study participants' ages ranged from 13 to 17 years. Distribution was as follows: 13 years, 8 or 10.3%; 14 years, 12 or 15.3%; 15 years, 23 or 29.5%; 16 years, 22 or 28.2%; and 17 years, 13 or 16.7%. There was a total of 78 subject responses. The participant group's mean age was 3.2564, which translates into 15 years old. The mode age was 15 years old and consisted of 23 subjects or 29.5% of the subject pool. The data suggest that the average participant was 15 years old.

Question 2, School grade. Grade response choices were 7th, 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th. Study participants' grade levels ranged from 7th through 12th. There was a total of 76 subject responses. The group's mean grade was 3.7895 or 10th grade. The median was 4.0000 or 10th grade. The mode was 4.00 with 21 9th-grade and 21 10th-grade responses; each composed 26% for a total of 58% of the subject pool. The data suggest the average participant was either a 9th-grade or a 10th-grade student.

Question 3, Number of siblings. Respondents were asked to fill in the number of brothers and sisters and their ages. There was a total of 73 responses. The range of study

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages for Demographic Variables

Item	Variable	Response	Value	Frequency	%
1	Age	13 years	1.00	8	10.3
		14 years	2.00	12	15.4
		15 years	3.00	23	29.5
		16 years	4.00	22	28.2
		17 years	5.00	13	16.7
		Total		78	100.0
2	School grade	7th	1.00	6	7.7
		8th	2.00	5	6.4
		9th	3.00	21	26.9
		10th	4.00	21	26.9
		11th	5.00	13	16.7
		12th	6.00	10	12.8
		Missing		2	2.6
3	Siblings	Total		78	100.0
		None	0.00	4	5.1
		One	1.00	25	32.1
		Two	2.00	18	23.1
		Three	3.00	11	14.1
		Four	4.00	5	6.4
		Five	5.00	2	2.6
		Six	6.00	3	3.8
		Seven	7.00	5	6.4
		Missing		5	6.4
4	Type of student	Total		78	100.0
		Above average	1.00	40	51.3
		Average	2.00	31	39.7
		Below average	3.00	4	5.1
		Missing		3	3.8
5	Parent income	Total		78	100.0
		\$0-\$9,999	1.00	19	24.4
		\$10,000-\$24,999	2.00	25	32.1
		\$25,000-\$39,999	3.00	13	16.7
		\$40,000-\$54,999	4.00	11	14.1
		\$55,000 and above	5.00	1	1.3
6	Income source	Missing		9	11.5
		Total		78	100.0
		Employment	1.00	57	73.1
		Aid Depend Mothers	2.00	4	5.1
		Child Sup (volun)	3.00	3	3.8
		Child Sup (manda)	4.00	5	6.4
		Other source	5.00	1	1.3
		Missing		8	10.3
		Total		78	100.0

(table continues)



Table 2--Continued

Item	Variable	Response	Value	Frequency	%
7	Why father is not in the home	Never lived with	1.00	18	23.1
		Separated	2.00	18	23.1
		Divorced	3.00	24	30.8
		Deceased	4.00	4	5.1
		Abandoned	5.00	8	10.3
		Missing		6	7.7
		Total		78	100.0
8	How long father lived in home with daughter	less than 1 month	1.00	11	14.1
		age 0 mo.-1 yr.	2.00	6	7.7
		age 0 mo.-3 yrs.	3.00	9	11.5
		age 0 mo.-7 yrs.	4.00	15	19.2
		age 0 mo.-11 yrs.	5.00	3	3.8
		age 0 mo.-14 yrs.	7.00	2	2.6
		age 0 mo.-15 yrs.	8.00	1	1.3
		age 0 mo.-17 yrs.	9.00	6	7.7
		from age _ to age _	10.00	6	7.7
		Missing		19	24.4
		Total		78	100.0
9	Number of years father has not lived in home since daughter's birth	0-2 years	1.00	18	23.1
		3-5 years	2.00	6	7.7
		6-9 years	3.00	13	16.7
		10 or more years	4.00	36	46.2
		Missing		5	6.4
		Total		78	100.0
10	Age of daughter when father left the home	0 years	0.00	1	1.3
		1 year	1.00	7	9.0
		2 years	2.00	6	7.7
		3 years	3.00	7	9.0
		4 years	4.00	1	1.3
		5 years	5.00	6	7.7
		6 years	6.00	6	7.7
		7 years	7.00	2	2.6
		8 years	8.00	2	2.6
		9 years	9.00	3	3.8
		10 years	10.00	2	2.6
		12 years	12.00	1	1.3
		14 years	12.00	1	1.3
		15 years	12.00	1	1.3
		16 years	16.00	2	2.6
		Missing		30	38.5
		Total		78	100.0

(table continues)

Table 2--Continued

Item	Variable	Response	Value	Frequency	%
11	When daughter last had contact with father	Within past week	1.00	25	32.1
		2 weeks-1 month	2.00	13	16.7
		1 month-3 months	3.00	9	11.5
		3 months-6 months	4.00	4	5.1
		6 months-1 year	5.00	3	3.8
		1 year or more	6.00	20	25.6
		Missing		4	5.1
		Total		78	100.0
12	How often father sees daughter	Frequently	1.00	21	26.9
		Limited	2.00	6	10.3
		Infrequently	3.00	12	15.4
		Seldom	4.00	13	16.7
		Never	5.00	23	29.5
		Missing		1	1.3
		Total		78	100.0
13	How father contacts daughter	Calls directly	1.00	40	51.3
		Inquires w/others	2.00	9	11.5
		No attempt	3.00	24	30.8
		Missing		5	6.4
		Total		78	100.0
14	Father has legal visitation rights	Yes	1.00	52	66.7
		No	2.00	16	20.5
		Uncertain	3.00	6	7.7
		Missing		4	5.1
		Total		78	100.0
15	Father maintains visitation arrangements	Yes	1.00	27	34.6
		Sometimes	2.00	17	21.8
		Not at all	3.00	27	34.6
		Missing		7	9.0
		Total		78	100.0
16	Describe relationship with father	Very strong	1.00	18	23.1
		Somewhat strong	2.00	19	24.4
		Not very strong	3.00	12	15.4
		Not strong at all	4.00	26	33.3
		Missing		3	3.8
		Total		78	100.0
17	Closeness of relationship with father	Very close	1.00	18	23.1
		Somewhat close	2.00	20	25.6
		Not very close	3.00	15	19.2
		Not close at all	4.00	22	28.2
		Missing		3	3.8
		Total		78	100.0

(table continues)

Table 2--Continued

Item	Variable	Response	Value	Frequency	%
18	Daughter describes self as	Very feminine	1.00	53	67.9
		Somewhat feminine	2.00	19	24.4
		Not very feminine	3.00	5	6.4
		Not at all fem.	4.00	0	0.0
		Missing		1	1.3
		Total		78	100.0
19	Daughter says father would describe her as	Very feminine	1.00	44	56.4
		Somewhat feminine	2.00	26	33.3
		Not very feminine	3.00	2	2.6
		Not at all fem.	4.00	2	2.6
		Missing		4	5.1
		Total		78	100.0
20	Work to fullest potential	All the time	1.00	27	34.6
		Most of the time	2.00	38	48.7
		Some of the time	3.00	9	11.5
		Not very often	4.00	1	1.3
		Not at all	5.00	1	1.3
		Missing		2	2.6
		Total		78	100.0

Note. Due to rounding, percentages may not total exactly 100%.

participants' brothers and sisters was from 0 to 7 with a mean of 2.4247. The average participant had 1-2 siblings. The mode was 1.00, and the median was 2.0000. The data suggest the average number of participants had 1-2 siblings.

#### Question 4, Description of self as a student.

Respondents were offered the following choices: Above average (A-B grades), Average (B-C grades), and Below average (below C grades). There was a total of 75 responses. The mean score was 1.520, depicting the average subject's grades being B-C. The median score was 1.000, representing

above average or A-B grades. The mode was 1.00, above average or A-B grades, represented by 31 subjects (39.7%).

Question 5, Parent/guardian income range. The following income ranges were offered: \$0-\$9,999, \$10,000-\$24,999, \$25,000-\$39,999, \$40,000-\$54,999, and \$55,000 or more. A total of 69 responded to Question 5 on income. Income had a mean of 2.2750, which represented a range of \$10,000-\$24,999. The median was 2.0000 or \$10,000-\$24,999 on the scale. The mode was 2.00, again in the \$10,000-\$24,999 range; 25 respondents (32.1%) were in this income range. Thirteen (16.7%) showed income in the range of \$25,000-\$39,999. Data suggested the average income for participant families was \$10,000-\$24,999.

Question 6, Family income source. Respondents were given the following choices: employment, aid for dependent mothers, child support (voluntarily contributed), child support (mandatorily collected), and other source. A total of 70 responses was received. A mean score of 1.4143 indicated that employment was the average source of income for the families of the subject pool. The employment was that of the mother/guardian. The median score was 1.0000. The mode score of 1.00 with an n of 57 (71.3%) also showed employment to be the primary income source for the participants. Data suggested that the average family income was derived from employment.

Question 7, Why father does not live in the home.

Response choices were "never lived with the family," "separated," "divorced," "deceased," and "abandoned." Responses were completed by 72 participants in the study. The mean score was 2.5278, indicating that the average participant's father did not live in the home due to divorce. The median score of 2.5000 also represented divorce. The mode score for this question was 3.00, with an n of 24 (30.8%). The choices "never lived with the family" and "separated" each received 18 responses (23.1% each). Data suggested that the average participant's father does not live in the home due to divorce.

Question 8, Period of time father lived in the home with daughter. Ten response choices were offered, ranging from "lived with daughter less than one month" to "lived with daughter from age \_\_\_\_ until age \_\_\_\_." A total of 59 responses resulted in a mean of 2.5278. This showed the average participant's father to have lived in the home with her for up to 7 years. The median was 2.5000. The mode was 1.00, exhibiting a frequency of 15 (19.2%); it also showed that the average participant's father lived in the participant's home for up to 7 years. Eleven participants (14.1%) indicated their father had lived in the home with them for less than 1 month. The cumulative percentage of 69.5% (n = 41) had fathers who had lived in the home with

them for 7 years or less of their lives. Data suggested the average participant's father lived in the home with her for up to 7 years.

Question 9, Number of years father has not lived in the home since daughter's birth. Response choices were 0-2 years, 3-5 years, 6-9 years, and 10 or more years. The mean of 2.9178 showed the total number of years the father has not lived in the home since the daughter's birth was within the 6-9 year range. The median score was 3.0000. A mode score of 4.00 had a frequency of 36 (46.2%), which showed that most participants had not had their father in the home for 10 years or more. The total frequency of responses was 73. The data suggested that the average length of time the participant's father has not lived in the home since the daughter's birth to be within the 6-9 year range. The data suggested that the average participant's father has not lived in the home 6-9 years.

Question 10, Age of participant when father left home. The respondents were asked to fill in their age. The study participants' ages ranged from 13 to 17 with an n of 48. The mean age of participants when the father left home was 5.4167. The participants' average age was 6 years old. The median age was 3.00 or 6 years. The mode fell in the 5-6 year range representing 12 (15%) of the sample population. Although the number of responses was a low 48, calculations

of participants' ages can be projected from Question 9. Its cumulative results showed that 73 (100%) of the fathers had not lived at home with the daughters for 10 years or more. With an average participant age of 15, the father being out of the home for a minimum of 10 years suggests the mean of 15 years is applicable to the total sample population. The data suggest the average participant's age was 6 years when the father left home.

Question 11, Participant's last contact with father.

Response choices were the following: within past week, 2 weeks to 1 month, 1 month to 3 months, 3 months to 6 months, 6 months to 1 year, and 1 year or more. There was a total of 74 responses. The mean of 3.0946 indicated average contact to have occurred 1-3 months ago. The median of 2.000 indicated 2 weeks to 1 month since last contact. The mode of 1.00 indicated that 25 (32%) had contact in the past week; however, 20 (25%) had not had contact in 1 year or more. Data suggested that average contact occurred 1-3 months ago.

Question 12, How often father sees participant. Five

response choices were offered: frequently (at least one time a week), limited (not more than two times a month), infrequently (not more than one time every 3 months), seldom (not more than twice a year), and never (no contact at all). The total number of responses was 77. The mean was 3.1169, indicating that the average client sees the father

infrequently. The median was 3.000. The mode was 5, indicating no contact at all. The frequency was 21 (26.9%). The data suggest the average father sees the participant infrequently.

Question 13, How father contacts participant.

Respondents were ask to check one of the following responses: (a) father calls participant directly (doesn't leave messages with other family members for participant); (b) father inquires about participant through others (not directly to participant); and (c) father makes no attempt to call or inquire about participant, to their knowledge (even through others). A total of 73 responses with a mean of 1.7808 indicated contact with the participant is through indirect inquiries. The median of 1.0000 indicates the father calls the participant directly. The mode of 1.00 also indicates the father calls the participant directly (40 or 51%). Data suggest the average father inquires about the participant through others.

Question 14, Does father have legal visitation rights?

The response choices were yes, no, and uncertain. The total number of responses was 74. The mean of 1.3784 indicated that the average participant's father had visitation rights. The median was 1.0000. The mode was 1.00 with an n of 52 (66.7%). Data suggest the average father has legal visitation rights.



Question 15, Does father maintain visitation rights?

Responses choices of yes, sometimes, and not at all were offered. The total number of responses was 71. The mean of 2.0000 showed an average response of "sometimes." The median score was 2.000, or "sometimes" maintains visitation rights. The mode of 1.00 elicited a response pattern showing responses of "not at all" with a frequency of 27 (34.6%) and "yes" responses with a frequency of 27 (34.6%). Both the median and mode score reflect a well-distributed response pattern. Data suggest the average participant's father sometimes maintains visitation rights.

Question 16, Relationship with father. Respondents were offered choices of very strong, somewhat strong, not very strong, and not strong at all. Participant responses ( $n = 75$ ) ranged from very strong to not strong at all. The mean score for the total subject group in Item 16 was 2.6133, "not very strong." The median score was 3.000. The mode, however, was 4.00, "not strong at all," with a frequency of 26 (33.3%). Data suggest the average participants describe their relationship with their father as not being very strong.

Question 17, Closeness of relationship. Respondents were asked to describe their relationship with their father as very close, somewhat close, not very close, or not close at all. The total number of participant responses was 75.

The mean was 2.5467, indicating that participants considered their relationship with their father to be somewhat close. The median was 2.0000. The mode (4.00) indicated that 22 (28.2%) of the participants considered their relationship with their father as not close at all. Data suggested that the average participant described her relationship to be somewhat close to her father.

Question 18, Description of self. Participants were asked to choose a descriptor of themselves from very feminine, somewhat feminine, not very feminine, and not feminine. The mean response for the participant group ( $n = 77$ ) feminine self-rating was 1.3766. A trend was shown toward participants describing themselves as being very feminine. The mode was 1.0000 with a frequency of 53 (67.9%). The median score was 1.00. The data suggested the average participant described herself as being very feminine.

Question 19, Father's description of participant. Each participant was asked how she believed her father would describe her; choices offered were very feminine, somewhat feminine, not very feminine, and not feminine. The mean response of total participants ( $n = 74$ ) was 1.4865, showing a rating of very feminine. The median was 1.0000. The mode score of 1.00 had a frequency of 44 and indicated that 56.4% of the adolescents believed their father would describe his

daughter as being very feminine. Data suggested the average participant believed her father would describe her as very feminine.

Question 20, Work to fullest potential. Respondents were asked the extent to which they worked to their fullest potential; choices were all the time, most of the time, some of the time, not very often, or not at all. The total number of responses was 76. The mean score was 1.8289, showing participants described themselves as working to their fullest potential most of the time. The mode score was 2.000; the frequency was 38 (50%). The data suggest the average participant described herself as working to her fullest potential most of the time.

The profile resulting from the mean scores on the demographic information survey indicated that the average respondent was 15, in the 10th grade with average (B-C) grades, had one or two siblings, and was from a divorced household with an income range of \$10,000 to \$24,999 derived from employment. Data further suggested the average participant described herself as very feminine, worked to her fullest potential, and believed her father would describe her as very feminine. Data further indicated that the participant described her relationship with her father as being neither strong nor close.

## Multidimensional Body-Self Relations

### Questionnaire Analysis Results

The MBSRQ assessed the body image domains of appearance, health, fitness, illness, body area satisfaction, and weight classification. A Likert-type scale allowed the individual's body image attitude to be measured from definitely disagree (1) to definitely agree (5). Each score is the mean of its items (Cash, 1994). The MBSRQ was developed and normed from a national body image survey report analysis of 335 males and 804 females (Cash et al., 1986). Among the respondents, 11% were under 20, 4% were Black, and 55% had income ranges up to \$24,999. The MBSRQ subscales are calculated from responses to selected items, which are identified. "Each score is the mean of its items" (Cash, 1994, p. 3).

Table 3 provides a summary of the mean, mode, and median for each item on the MBSRQ. Frequency and percentage data for the 69 individual items on the MBSRQ are in Appendix F.

### Data Analysis of MBSRQ Subscales

The profile results of the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire mean scores indicated that scores were bunched around responses of "neither agree nor disagree" and "mostly agree."

Table 3

Means, Medians, and Modes for MBSRO Items

Item	Mean		Median		Mode		SD
1	4.5385	Definitely Agree	5	Definitely Agree	5	Definitely Agree	0.8481
2	4.5128	Definitely Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	0.8489
3	4.0128	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	0.9868
4	3.9359	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.0971
5	3.9079	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.0976
6	3.0519	Neutral	4	Mostly Agree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.5635
7	4.2564	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	0.9179
8	4.2308	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.0681
9	3.7500	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.0472
10	3.1923	Neutral	3	Neutral	4	Mostly Agree	1.4599
11	4.1154	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.0688
12	3.9103	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.0688
13	3.6795	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.2006
14	4.0641	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	0.9306
15	2.7564	Neutral	3	Neutral	1	Definitely Disagree	1.4432
16	2.7692	Neutral	3	Neutral	1	Definitely Disagree	1.3950
17	2.7237	Neutral	3	Neutral	1	Definitely Disagree	1.3327
18	4.3590	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	5	Definitely Agree	0.8214
19	4.1282	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.0612
20	3.1923	Neutral	3.5	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.4599
21	3.9231	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.0416
22	4.0641	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.0108
23	3.2208	Neutral	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.4656
24	3.9872	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	0.9736
25	2.6795	Mostly Agreed	3	Neutral	2	Mostly Disagree	1.2431
26	3.6410	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.1949
27	3.2468	Neutral	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.4341
28	2.2105	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.4266
29	3.1667	Neutral	3	Neutral	4	Mostly Agree	1.3331

(table continues)

Table 3--Continued

Item	Mean		Median		Mode		SD
30	3.6494	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.1328
31	3.6923	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.2200
32	1.9231	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.1255
33	2.1154	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.2272
34	2.8831	Neutral	3	Neutral	4	Mostly Agree	1.3276
35	3.5513	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	3	Neutral	1.1356
36	2.9103	Neutral	3	Neutral	2	Mostly Disagree	1.3693
37	2.2564	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.1316
38	3.0000	Neutral	3	Neutral	2	Mostly Disagree	1.2958
39	4.1026	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.1118
40	3.4103	Neutral	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.3998
41	4.2821	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	5	Definitely Agree	0.9921
42	2.4103	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.2320
43	2.4286	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	1.1968
44	3.8442	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.1129
45	2.3636	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.1688
46	3.7273	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.1544
47	2.1795	Mostly Disagree	2	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.2561
48	1.7179	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.1610
49	1.8718	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.2312
50	3.8077	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	1.1849
51	4.1538	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	5	Definitely Agree	0.9545
52	3.6795	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.1677
53	2.8077	Neutral	3	Neutral	1	Definitely Disagree	1.6201
54	3.8718	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.0111
55	3.9359	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	4	Mostly Agree	1.0108
56	3.1538	Neutral	3	Neutral	2	Mostly Disagree	1.4057
57	1.9359	Mostly Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1	Definitely Disagree	1.3802
58	1.5833	Rarely	1	Never	1	Never	0.9154
59	3.0959	Normal Weight	3	Normal Weight	3	Normal Weight	0.7667
60	2.8082	Normal Weight	3	Normal Weight	3	Normal Weight	0.7933
61	4.2051	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	5	Very Satisfied	0.9025

(table continues)

Table 3--Continued

Item	Mean		Median		Mode		<u>SD</u>
62	4.1410	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	1.0158
63	3.9615	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	5	Very Satisfied	1.0983
64	3.6538	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	5	Very Satisfied	1.3175
65	3.9744	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	5	Very Satisfied	1.0565
66	3.8333	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	1.0861
67	3.7308	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	1.2239
68	4.2179	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	4	Mostly Satisfied	0.8626
69	3.4057	Neutral	3.4286	Neutral	3.43	Neutral	0.4280

Note. In this table, "Neutral" represents response choice 3, Neither Agree Nor Disagree (Items 1-57) or Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied (Items 61-69).

Table 4 shows a data analysis of the MBSRQ's 10 factor areas. Frequencies and percentages for all responses to each factor area are in Appendix G.

Appearance Evaluation Scale. This subscale was made up of Items B5, B11, B21, B30, B39, B42, and B48. The total number of respondents was 75. The mean of 3.4057 indicated that the average participant feels "mostly positive and satisfied with their appearance." The median score was 3.4286. The mode of 3.43 had a frequency of 15 or 19.2%. The data suggest the average response was "mostly feel satisfaction with appearance."

Appearance Orientation Subscale. This subscale was made up of Items B1, B2, B12, B13, B22, B23, B31, B32, B40, B41, B49, and B50. The total number of responses was 77. The mean of 3.5758 indicated that the average participant mostly agreed that they placed importance on how they look, paid attention to their appearance, and engaged in extensive grooming behaviors to manage their appearance. The median was 3.6667. The mode of 3.57 showed a frequency of 7 (9.0%). The data suggest the average respondent indicated she "mostly" feels invested in her appearance.

Fitness Evaluation Subscale. This subscale included Items B24, B33, and B51. The total number of participants was 78. The mean score was 3.4188, which indicated that the participants "neither agreed or disagreed" as to whether



Table 4

Multidimensional Body-Self Relation Questionnaire Summary of  
Total Data by Analytic Factor

Analytic Factor	<u>n</u>	Mean	Rating	Median	Mode	Freq.	%
Appearance Evaluation	75	3.4057	3	3.4286	3.43	15	19.2
Appearance Orientation	77	3.5758	4	3.6667	3.57	7*	9.0
Fitness Evaluation	78	3.4188	3	3.3330	3.33	24	30.8
Fitness Orientation	75	3.2687	3	3.3077	3.31	10	12.8
Health Evaluation	75	3.2356	3	3.1667	3.00	12	15.4
Health Orientation	75	3.5183	4	3.5000	4.00	9	11.5
Illness Orientation	77	3.0468	3	3.0000	3.40	14	17.9
Body-Areas Satisfaction	78	3.9647	4	4.0000	5.00	11	14.1
Self-Classified Weight	73	2.9521	3	3.0000	3.00	40	51.3
Overweight Preoccupation	72	2.4375	2	2.5000	3.50	9	11.5

they regarded themselves as physically fit or athletically active and competent. The median was 3.333. The mode score was 3.33 with a frequency of 24 (30.8%). The data suggested that the average participant neither agreed or disagreed about being physically fit or physically unfit.

Health Evaluation Subscale. This subscale included Items B3, B4, B6, B14, B15, B16, B25, B26, B34, B35, B43, B44, and B53. The total number of participant responses was 75. The mean score was 3.2356, which indicated that the participants neither agreed or disagreed as to whether their bodies were in good health or vulnerable to illness. The median was 3.1667. The mode was 3.00 with a frequency of 12, representing 15.4% of the participants. The data suggested that the average participant neither agreed or disagreed about the vulnerability of the health status of her body.

Health Orientation Subscale. This subscale consisted of Items B8, B9, B18, B28, B29, B38, and B52. The total number of participants was 75. The mean score was 3.5183, indicating that the average participant mostly agreed that she was health conscious. The median was 3.5000. The mode was 4.00, showing a frequency of 9 representing 11.5% of the total participants.

Illness Orientation Subscale. This subscale included Items B37, B46, B47, B55, and B56. The total number of participants responding was 77. The mean was 3.0468, indicating that the average participant neither agreed or disagreed that she was alert or not alert to physical symptoms of illness. The median was 3.0000. The mode was 3.40 with a frequency of 14, representing 17.9% of the total respondents. The data suggested that the average participant

did not respond either positively or negatively to physical symptoms of illness.

### Additional Subscales

Body-Areas Satisfaction Scale. This subscale included Items B61, B62, B63, B64, B65, B66, B67, and B68 (B69 not included in mean). The total number of participants was 78. The mean was 3.9647, indicating that the average participant scored "mostly agree." The Body-Areas Satisfaction Scale high scorers reflect more body satisfaction and general body content. The median was 4.0000. The mode was 5.00 with a frequency of 11, representing 14.1% of the total number of respondents. The data suggested that the average participant response of "mostly agree" demonstrated general content with various aspects (e.g., hips, face, hair) of their body.

Self-Classified Weight. Items B59 and B60 comprised this subscale. The total number of participants was 73. The mean score was 2.9521, indicating that the average participant neither agreed or disagreed that she was either overweight or underweight. The median score was 3.0000. The mode of 3.00 showed a frequency rate of 40, representing 51.3% of the sample. The data suggested the average participant did not perceive herself as being overweight or underweight.

## Results of ANOVA

A one-way ANOVA was utilized to analyze the significant statistical difference between body image attitude and paternal disengagement. The group factors of paternal disengagement and contact/disengagement were assessed.

The ANOVA test for significant statistical difference was performed on the variables of body image attitude and paternal disengagement in Hypothesis 1 and the variables of body image attitude and paternal engagement/contact in Hypothesis 2.

The means and standard deviations for body image attitude and paternal disengagement are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for Body Image Attitude and Paternal Disengagement

Length of Disengagement	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
0-2 years	15	3.3182	0.3765
3-5 years	6	3.5095	0.4145
6-9 years	10	3.2890	0.2852
10 or more years	32	3.2048	0.2312
Total	63	3.2742	0.3046

A comparison of the calculated value of  $F(3, 59) = 1.945$  to the table value of 2.76 suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between body image attitude and paternal disengagement (see Table 6).

Table 6

ANOVA for Body Image Attitude and Paternal Disengagement  
Between and Within Groups

Source	Sum of Squares	<u>df</u>	Mean Square	<u>F</u>	Sign.
Between Groups	0.518	3	0.173	1.945	.132
Within Groups	5.233	59	8.870 E-02		
Total	5.751	62			

The ANOVA was performed to determine the statistical significant difference between body image attitude and paternal engagement/contact. The means and standard deviations for body image attitude and paternal engagement/contact are presented in Table 7.

A comparison of the calculated value of  $F(5, 57) = 1.837$  to the table value of 2.37 suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between body image attitude and paternal engagement/contact (see Table 8).

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for Body Image Attitude and Paternal Engagement/Contact

Engagement/ Contact	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
Within past week	21	3.2405	0.2533
2 weeks to 1 month	11	3.3141	0.3730
1-3 months	7	3.4346	0.3897
3-6 months	4	3.3329	0.2645
6 months to 1 year	3	2.8372	0.2459
1 year or more	17	3.2962	0.2679
Total	63	3.2766	0.3080

Table 8

ANOVA for Body Image Attitude and Paternal Engagement/  
Contact Between and Within Groups

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sign.
Between Groups	0.816	5	0.163	1.837	.120
Within Groups	5.065	57	8.885 E-02		
Total	5.881	62			

### Results of Testing the Hypotheses

The ANOVA results provided data for testing the two hypotheses of this study.

### Hypothesis 1

The null hypothesis was that there is no statistically significant difference between the body image attitude as measured by the MBSRQ of African American females and paternal disengagement. The calculated  $F$  (3, 59) value of 1.945 is less than the table value of 2.76 at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between body image attitude and paternal disengagement.

### Hypothesis 2

The null hypothesis was that there is no statistically significant difference between body image attitude as measured by the MBSRQ and paternal engagement/contact. The calculated  $F$  (5, 57) value of 1.837 is less than the table value of 2.37 at the .05 level of significance. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. This also indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between body image attitude and father engagement/contact.

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

#### Discussion

The purpose of this study was to discern whether any significant differences exists between body image attitudes and father disengagement and between body image attitudes and father engagement/contact. Unlike the majority of studies on body image, it did not research weight or weight-related disorders (i.e., anorexia nervosa, obesity) (Cash & Green, 1986) because research has indicated that these are less of an issue for the African American female (Davis, 1994; Harris, 1995).

Cash (1990) indicated that "body image is not only a cognitive construction but a reflection of wishes, emotional attitudes, and interactions with others" (p. 10). It is that very link of body image to interaction with others, specifically the father, that stimulated interest in this topic. Furthermore, there is a need to expand research within this arena.

The sample population consisted of 78 African American female adolescents from the Fulton County Juvenile Court,



Atlanta Public Schools Parent-Teacher-Student Association, and Upward Bound Programs in metro Atlanta.

### Results of Demographic Data

Results from the demographic data reflected that the average participant was 15 years old (29.5%), in the 10th grade (26.9%), with B-C grades (23.1%), and a family income range of \$10,000 to \$24,999 with 73.1% of income obtained from employment. Thirty-one percent of the participants' fathers were not living in the home as a result of divorce.

Although responses indicated the average father had lived in the home with the daughter for 7 years (19.2%), the cumulative average for fathers having lived in the home for 7 years or less was 69.5%. Demographic data related to father disengagement and contact indicated the total number of years the father had not lived in the home with the daughter to be 5 years or less (30%). More than twice as many (62.9%) had lived outside the home for 10 years or more. This resulted in the participant being an average of 5 to 6 years old when the father left home. The father last had contact with participants (32.1%) within past week, and 16.7% within past two weeks. Sixty-three percent (cumulative average) of the fathers had made contact with the participants during the last 1 to 3 months. However, 35% of the fathers had made no contact for 6 months or more. They

had become disengaged. In fact, when describing the father's frequency of contact, the average response of the participants was "infrequently." At the same time, over 46% had essentially disengaged by having no contact with the daughter from a minimum of 1 month to over a year. Thirty-six percent exhibited moderate contact with the participants two times a month (10%) or more (26%).

Responses that described the father's attempts to contact the daughter showed 51.3% received direct calls from the father, but the average (11%) participant was not contacted directly or inquired about directly by the father; and 30.8% made no attempt at contact, either directly or indirectly through others, to the participant's knowledge. Lack of contact was consistent even when the father had visitation rights, which the majority (67%) did. Data results showed 27% of the fathers maintained their visitation rights, while responses indicated that 27% did not and 17% sometimes did.

Questions 17 through 20 explored participants' self-ratings of their relationship with the father. The mean of 2.6133 represented a response of "not very strong." Forty-eight percent assessed the relationship as being "not very strong" to "not strong at all," while 47.5% assessed the relationship as "somewhat strong" or "very strong." A similar pattern can be seen from the participants' responses

when describing closeness to the father. The mean of 2.3567 indicated a response of "somewhat close," accounting for 25% of the responses. However, 22 or 28.2% of the respondents described the relationship as "not close at all." The distribution of responses showed a pattern with "somewhat close" and "very close" accounting for 48.7% and "not very close" and "not close at all" totaling 47.4%.

The participant's average self-rating of her femininity was "very feminine" (68%). Furthermore, her rating of how her father sees her femininity was also "very feminine" (56.4%). The same held true for the participant's self-rating of whether she worked to her fullest potential. Eighty-four percent described themselves as working to their fullest potential either "all" or "most of the time."

The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire subscales elicited results which were unusual because they revealed a predominant pattern of "neither agree nor disagree" or "mostly agree" responses.

The data results from the MBSRQ Appearance Evaluation subscale found the average participant (19.2%) "neither agreed or disagreed" that she was satisfied or dissatisfied with her appearance and attractiveness, but the Appearance Orientation showed responses (9%) whose average (3.5787) "mostly agreed" that it is important to pay attention to one's appearance. Participants' evaluation of their

appearance seemed to be greater than their investment factor.

Investment in being physically fit was measured by the Fitness Evaluation subscale. Thirty-one percent of the participants' responses had a mean of 3.4188, whereas 12% of the Fitness Orientation responses demonstrated a mean score of 3.287. It appears that while 31% of the participants do not consider themselves either physically fit or unfit, a lesser number (12.8%) describe themselves as "neither being invested or disinvested" in a physically fit lifestyle.

The Health Evaluation subscale assessed individuals' feelings about their health. The participants' (15.4%) mean responses (3.2356) resulted in "neither agree or disagree" that their bodies were in good health. However, "mostly agree" responses to the Health Evaluation subscale revealed a mean of 3.5183. This suggested a trend toward healthier lifestyles and behaviors.

The Illness Orientation explored participants' reactivity to becoming ill. The mean score of 3.0468 was interpreted by the participants (17.9%) into "neither agree or disagree" about being alert or not alert to symptoms of physical illness.

Similar to the Appearance Orientation subscale, the Body Areas Satisfaction Scale evaluated appearance satisfaction but focused more specifically on certain

aspects of the body (e.g., hips, hair, buttocks). The Body Areas Satisfaction Scale mean score of 3.964 was exhibited by 11 or 14.1% of the sample population. The average participant "mostly agreed" to general content and satisfaction with most parts of her body. Compared to the Appearance Evaluation, the Body Areas Satisfaction Scale elicited a stronger response. This may suggest the need to consider expanding the body image instrument to focus on assessing more discrete variables, particularly in measuring body image for African American females.

Both the Self-Classified Weight and Overweight Preoccupation subscales were concerned with perceptions and assessment of one's weight. The mean scores respectively were 2.9521 and 2.4375 and represented "neither agree or disagree" and "mostly disagree." Data results indicate that although 51.3% of the participants' perception of their weight as mostly and very satisfied, 11.5% saw themselves as somewhat underweight, although none appeared to be.

The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire subscales elicited results which were unusual in that they showed a predominant pattern of "neither agree or disagree" or "mostly agree." This suggests that the data are open to interpretation and further exploration. Also suggested is the need to develop instruments which more accurately assess the body image attitude of African American females with a

stronger emphasis on cultural and familial body image attitudes. Otherwise, responses that emerge may be somewhat artificial, inaccurately reflecting body image issues relevant to African American females.

The ANOVA  $F(3, 59) = 1.945$  exhibited no real statistically significant difference between body image and paternal disengagement. The same was found, as demonstrated by the ANOVA  $F(5, 57) = 1.837$ , for body image and paternal engagement/contact. This suggests that paternal engagement/contact variables present minimal influence on the daughter's body image attitude. However, the concern of this study was to examine if any statistically significant difference existed between the variables. It is suggested that paternal disengagement and engagement are factors in the development of the daughter's body image attitude. Results suggest that, regardless of relationship, the father impacts on some level, as indicated by ANOVA scores, the daughter's body image development.

The study serves to reinforce that the adolescent body image attitude is not the sole result of paternal interaction or disengagement. It suggests a combination of factors are involved, which include psycho-socio-cultural forces such as values, beliefs, media, peers, and family. However, it was interesting that the MBSRQ responses frequently fell within the neither agree or disagree mean

score on the Likert scale. Secondly, it was observed that responses to Items 18-20 were discordant (i.e., describing the relationship with fathers as not strong at all or not close at all, while believing the father would describe them as being very feminine). The trend showed a stronger response to evaluative subscales than orientation subscales. Further research is needed to determine the reason for these disparities.

### Implications

This study has implications for counselors, social workers, and those working with adolescent females. It is especially salient for counseling the African American adolescent female within a cultural context of family structure. Although somewhat premature, consideration of how the adolescent envisions the father's perception of her to be may be important to how she experiences her body image. Counselors might assist the adolescent in the exploration of these idealized expectations in her search for desirability and acceptance as part of the process toward building a healthy body image.

Further implications for counselors to consider are the impact of familial and psycho-social experiences on the body image attitudes of African American female adolescents. According to Bersheid et al. (1973), "We form opinions of

our abilities, emotional states and attractiveness from the feedback we get from others" (p. 122). Body image attitude represented through messages (i.e., flirting, etc.) may be more meaningful in determining self-image than how much she defines her figure.

One might also conjecture that body image attitude is derived from a schema upon which experiences of paternal disengagement/engagement create for the daughter rules and ideas that define her physical self.

Counselors working with African American female adolescents may select to guide the individual toward a more effective self-evaluation process. This would entail teaching more appropriate coping skills relative to her cultural parameters and redirecting the individual's tendencies toward self-idealization to healthier self-identity.

#### Limitations

Although not specifically normed against an African American adolescent population, the MBRSQ best addressed the assessment needs for this study. Furthermore, its focus on issues of health and fitness and weight measured variables not specific to this study. However, its Appearance Evaluation, Orientation, and Body Area Satisfaction scale were appropriate.



Much of the body image data on African American females were extrapolated from studies on African American female college students because of limited research on adolescent populations within this group. A further limitation was the size of the sample population, which consisted of African American female adolescents predominantly from urban population settings (i.e., public schools, juvenile courts, and educational incentive programs).

These limitations suggest more research is needed to assess how much disengagement and other psycho-social variables, such as surrogate father roles, affect the body image of (more economically and educationally inclusive) African American female population.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

The study warrants further research to expand the understanding of factors impacting on the body image attitude of African American adolescent females. It is recommended that the study be duplicated on larger samples of African American female adolescents. Further suggested is the expansion of survey questions regarding father contact and father disengagement to include types of contact and self-evaluation of father's attitudes by daughter.

Self-evaluation-based items provide a foundation from which to further evaluate the daughter's attitudes and explore feelings about the relationship with the father.

This researcher also recommends the use of an instrument that assesses body image attitude of the family. This may occur through the inclusion of questions on the survey that focus on family attitude about body image (i.e., how father defines femininity).

Future studies may also want to consider exploring other variables such as the stepfather and other males in the female's life.

### Conclusions

A total of 78 African American female adolescents responded to the demographic survey and MBSRQ instruments. The purpose of the study was to further the understanding of the difference of the father's role interaction on the daughter's body image development. No real differential between the variables was found; however, this may be attributed to factors other than those suggested by Crockett, Eggebeen, and Hawkins (1993). Their study suggested that the "father presence may be less important in African American families because father absence is more normative for this ethnic group" (p. 371). They have applied

a cultural deficit model to the role of the African American father (McAdoo, 1993).

Furthermore, the study expands the opportunity for further research on better understanding of what may appear as normative behavior but instead may be a complex compensatory behavior pattern by the individual and the family. For the daughter, the attitude she develops about her body image may stem from an ongoing desire to have the father be an integral part of her life.

Theoretically, a psycho-socio-cultural coping model appears to most appropriately address the adolescent's issues involving gender roles, femininity, and potential. The psycho-socio-cultural theoretical approach to understanding the dynamics of body image is crucial as we consider the implications resulting from this study. Entwined in each individual's developmental process are familial, cultural, social, racial, gender, and environmental experiences. All are salient to gaining a more comprehensive understanding of the body image issues unique to African American female adolescents.

What research on the father's role in his daughter's body image development provides is a vehicle through which to gain a broader view and further insight into the connection between the two. This connection is useful not so much from a deficit perspective, but as a way to understand

the link between the adolescent female's body image and paternal interaction.

## APPENDIX A

### Fulton County Juvenile Court, Upward Bound Permission Request Letter

Letter requesting permission to work with Fulton County Juvenile Court Upward Bound students at several sites: Morehouse College, Metropolitan College, Morris Brown College, and Georgia State University.

Dear \_\_\_\_\_,

As indicated in our conversation February 2, 1998, I am seeking permission to include your female students as part of my dissertation research.

The purpose of the study is to explore whether there is a relationship between the body image attitude of African American female adolescents ages 14-17 and father disengagement (father no longer a part of their lives). The study's focus on body image examines how the adolescent female sees herself and believes that others see her.

The actual student involvement would be minimal and involves collection of demographic and assessment data. It will require getting permission from parents, completion of initial screening, the demographic questionnaire, and a 69-item Likert-type scale questionnaire.

How they are seen by others and how they see themselves is an important aspect of the developmental process for adolescents as they seek to establish a sense of identity and relationships with others. Furthermore, research has shown that African American fathers have even more influence on the female's gender role behaviors than the mothers. That fact, combined with the significant number of African American mother-headed families, supports the need to better understand the father's effects on the African American female adolescent's body image, her femininity, and her potential.

I will be prepared to implement data collection in early March, 1998, and appreciate your support in my effort.

I can be contacted at (404) 755-7303 for confirmation or further information. Thank you.

Sincerely,

Carolyn Evereteze

APPENDIX B

Participant Basic Screening Data Form

BODY IMAGE DATA SCREENING FORM

Phone Number ( ) \_\_\_\_\_

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Address \_\_\_\_\_ City \_\_\_\_\_ State/Zip \_\_\_\_ / \_\_\_\_

Age \_\_\_\_\_ Grade level \_\_\_\_\_ Male \_\_\_\_\_ Female \_\_\_\_\_ Date of Birth \_\_\_\_\_

Number of brothers \_\_\_\_\_ Ages \_\_\_\_\_ Number of sisters \_\_\_\_\_ Ages \_\_\_\_\_ # stepbrothers/sisters \_\_\_\_\_

Both parents living? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ If either is deceased, please identify \_\_\_\_\_

Father living in the home? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_ Mother living in the home? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

Please return to Carolyn Evereteze when completed

## APPENDIX C

### Participant/Parent Packet

#### Parent Information Letter

Date

Dear Parent/Guardian,

My name is Carolyn Evereteze, a graduate student at Clark Atlanta University, in the Department of Counseling and Psychological Services. I am conducting a study that will explore the body image attitude of female adolescents ages 13 through 17. It is specifically concerned with the degree of father's presence in her life and whether it affects the feelings she has about her appearance.

Your child's participation in this study can provide insight into the importance of a father's influence on a daughter's development. The study is a partial fulfillment of academic requirements for my doctorate degree.

In order to have your daughter participate, it is necessary that you read and sign the attached Consent/Authorization/Rights/Permission form. Your daughter will also be signing a similar form, which is enclosed. Both forms should be returned by her at her next Upward Bound session.

Your child's participation in the study will consist of two parts. She will be asked to complete a survey questionnaire that measures body image attitude and to self-administer a second questionnaire which assesses satisfaction and dissatisfaction with her appearance.

All data surveys will be confidential, and the enclosed consent form will be collected and placed in a sealed envelope separate from all other collected data.

Participation in this study is voluntary, and no penalty exists should you or your child select not to participate or withdraw at any time. There are no indications that I am aware of that suggest this research to be of any risk or to have side effects for the participants, nor do I expect your child to receive any direct benefit by participating. The research will be to enhance the general field of body image attitude and fathering.

Should you have any questions regarding this study, please contact me at (404) 753-7603 or my committee chair, Dr. Lloyd Williams, Department Chair, at (404) 880-8016.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Carolyn Evereteze, Ph.D. Candidate  
CAU Dept. of Couns. and Psych. Serv.

## Participant Information/Consent/Confidentiality/Rights Letter

Date

Dear Participant,

My name is Carolyn Evereteze, a doctoral student in the School of Education, Department of Counseling and Psychological Services, at Clark Atlanta University.

I am seeking your involvement in a study that is exploring the body image attitude of female adolescents ages 13 through 17. It is specifically concerned with the degree of father's presence in her life and whether it affects the feelings she has about her appearance.

Your participation in this research project is very important because it can provide important information about the influence that a father can have on his daughter's feelings about her appearance. It also is part of the requirements for completion of my Ph.D. program.

All study participants will be asked to complete two questionnaires. The first is a demographic and information questionnaire providing information about you and your family. The second is a survey called the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire. It examines feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with one's appearance.

Responses are confidential and anonymous. Participation is voluntary and can be withdrawn at any time during the study.

Signing this form indicates you have agreed to participate and serves as your consent for me to collect research data on you.

Please read, sign, and return this form to Ms. Carolyn Evereteze.

I (your name) \_\_\_\_\_

give my consent to Carolyn Evereteze to collect research data on myself as a participant of the Body Image Attitude research project. I understand that the **data collected are strictly confidential** and that appropriate ethical standards of the American Counseling Association and the American Psychological Association will be followed. I also understand that my **participation is voluntary** and that **I may withdraw at any time during the study without penalty.**

If you are interested in results from the study, you may contact me at (404) 753-7603.



## Parent/Guardian Consent Letter

Date \_\_\_\_\_

Dear Parent/Guardian:

My name is Carolyn Evereteze, a doctoral student in the School of Education, Department of Counseling and Psychological Services, at Clark Atlanta University.

The purpose of this study is to explore the body image attitude of female adolescents ages 13 through 17. It is specifically concerned with the degree of father's presence in her life and whether it affects the feelings she has about her appearance.

Your child's participation in this research project will provide important information about the influence of a father on his daughter's feelings about herself. It is also part of the requirements for completion of my Ph.D. in Counseling Psychology. The study participants will be asked to complete two questionnaires. The first is a demographic and information questionnaire providing information about them and their family. The second is a questionnaire called the Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire, which examines feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction with one's appearance.

Responses by each individual are anonymous. All data collected are confidential. Participation is voluntary and may be withdrawn at any time.

Please read, sign, and have your daughter return this form to Ms. Evereteze. If you have any questions, feel free to contact me at (404) 753-7603. Your support is very much appreciated.

Carolyn Evereteze

I, \_\_\_\_\_, give my consent to Carolyn Evereteze to collect body image research data on my child,

(name) \_\_\_\_\_,

as a participant of the Body Image Attitude research project. I understand that **data collected are strictly confidential** and that appropriate ethical standards of the American Counseling Association and the American Psychological Association will be followed. I also understand that **my child's participation is voluntary** and that she **may withdraw at any time during the study without penalty**. Furthermore, I give permission or authorization for release of information relevant to this study's purpose with the understanding that it will be held in confidentiality at all times.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Parent/Guardian Signature\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

For information on the final results of the study, please contact Ms. Evereteze at (404) 753-7603.

## APPENDIX D

### Body Image Demographic Survey Questionnaire

Subject code # \_\_\_\_\_

**Directions:**

**Please circle the number next to the answer that most accurately represents you (the participant) and your family. The answers are not right or wrong but should be answered to the best of your ability and are very important to the outcome of the study.**

1. Age

- [1] 13
- [2] 14
- [3] 15
- [4] 16
- [5] 17

2. School Grade

- [1] 7th
- [2] 8th
- [3] 9th
- [4] 10th
- [5] 11th
- [6] 12th

3. Number of:

brothers \_\_\_\_\_ Ages \_\_\_\_\_  
sisters \_\_\_\_\_ Ages \_\_\_\_\_

4. Would you describe yourself over the years as being an:

Above average student (A & B grades)  
Average student (B & C grades)  
Below average student (below C grades)

5. Parent/Guardian/Caretaker Income Range:

- [1] \$0-\$9,999
- [2] \$10,000-\$24,999
- [3] \$25,000-\$39,999
- [4] \$40,000-\$54,999
- [5] \$55,000-

6. Family income sources:

- [1] Employment
  - [2] Aid for Dependent Mothers
  - [3] Child Support (voluntarily contributed)
  - [4] Child Support (mandatorily contributed)
  - [5] Other source(s) \_\_\_\_\_
-

7. Which of the below best describes why your father does not live in the home?
- [1] Never lived with the family (if yes, skip to #9)
  - [2] Separated
  - [3] Divorced
  - [4] Deceased
  - [5] Abandoned
8. Period of time father lived in home with daughter?
- [1] Lived with daughter less than one month
  - [2] Lived with daughter ages 0 month-1 year
  - [3] Lived with daughter ages 0 month-3 years
  - [4] Lived with daughter ages 0 month-7 years
  - [5] Lived with daughter ages 0 month-11 years
  - [6] Lived with daughter ages 0 month-13 years
  - [7] Lived with daughter ages 0 month-14 years
  - [8] Lived with daughter ages 0 month-15 years
  - [9] Lived with daughter ages 0 month-17 years
  - [10] Lived with daughter age \_\_\_\_\_ until age \_\_\_\_\_
9. Total number of years father has not lived in the home since daughter's birth:
- [1] 0-2
  - [2] 3-5
  - [3] 6-9
  - [4] 10 or more
10. Age of participant when father left the home: \_\_\_\_\_
11. Participant last had any contact with father:
- [1] Within past week
  - [2] 2 weeks-1 month
  - [3] 1 month-3 months
  - [4] 3 months-6 months
  - [5] 6 months-1 year
  - [6] 1 year or more
12. Father sees participant?
- [1] Frequently (at least one time a week)
  - [2] Limited (not more than two times a month)
  - [3] Infrequently (not more than one time every 3 months)
  - [4] Seldom (not more than twice a year)
  - [5] Never (no contact at all)
13. Please check one of the following:
- [1] Father calls participant directly (doesn't leave messages with other family members for participant)
  - [2] Father inquires about participant through others (not directly to participant)
  - [3] Father makes no attempt to call or inquire about participant, to their knowledge (even through others)
14. Does father have legal visitation rights?
- Yes                      No                      Uncertain
15. Does father maintain visitation arrangements?
- Yes                      Sometimes                      Not at all                      Don't know

16. Would you describe your relationship with your father as:
- |        |          |          |            |
|--------|----------|----------|------------|
| Very   | Somewhat | Not very | Not strong |
| strong | strong   | strong   | at all     |
17. Do you consider your relationship with your father to be:
- |       |          |          |           |
|-------|----------|----------|-----------|
| Very  | Somewhat | Not very | Not close |
| close | close    | close    | at all    |
18. Would you describe yourself as:
- |          |          |          |          |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Very     | Somewhat | Not very | Not      |
| feminine | feminine | feminine | feminine |
19. Do you believe your father would describe you as being:
- |          |          |          |          |
|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Very     | Somewhat | Not very | Not      |
| feminine | feminine | feminine | feminine |
20. I always work to my fullest potential:
- |         |          |          |          |        |
|---------|----------|----------|----------|--------|
| All the | Most of  | Some of  | Not very | Not at |
| time    | the time | the time | often    | all    |

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. Please turn it in to Ms. Carolyn Evereteze.

## APPENDIX E

### The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire

#### Reliabilities of the Subscales of the MBSRQ

	Cronbach's Alpha	1-Month Test-Retest	Cronbach's Alpha	1-Month Test-Retest
FACTOR SUBSCALES:				
Appearance Evaluation	.88	.81	.88	.91
Appearance Orientation	.88	.89	.85	.90
Fitness Evaluation	.77	.76	.77	.79
Fitness Orientation	.91	.73	.90	.94
Health Evaluation	.80	.71	.83	.79
Health Orientation	.78	.76	.78	.85
Illness Orientation	.78	.79	.75	.78
ADDITIONAL SUBSCALES:				
Body Areas Satisfaction	.77	.86	.73	.74
Overweight Preoccupation	.73	.79	.76	.89
Self-Classified Weight	.70	.86	.89	.74

Source: MBSRQ Users' Manual (Cash, 1994), p. 5.

MBSRQ Users' Manual (Cash, 1994), p. 1

THE MULTIDIMENSIONAL BODY-SELF RELATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

THOMAS F. CASH, PH.D.  
Professor of Psychology  
Old Dominion University  
Norfolk, Virginia 25329-0267  
(Office Phone: 804-683-4439)

The Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire (MBSRQ) is a 69-item self-report inventory for the assessment of self-attitudinal aspects of the body-image construct. Here, body image is conceived as one's attitudinal dispositions toward the physical self (Cash & Pruzinsky, 1990). As attitudes, these dispositions include affective/evaluative, cognitive/attentional, and behavioral components. Moreover, the physical self encompasses not only the aesthetics of one's physical size/appearance but also its competence or "fitness" and its biological integrity or "health/illness."

An initial version in 1983 (by T. F. Cash and Barbara Winstead) contained about 300 items and was termed the BSRQ. Subsequent versions iteratively eliminated or replaced items on the basis of rational/conceptual and psychometric criteria. In 1985, Cash, Winstead, and Janda used the instrument in a national body-image survey. From over 30,000 respondents, approximately 2,000 were randomly sampled, stratified on the basis of the sex x age distribution in the U.S. population. In addition to the original publication of survey results (see Cash et al., 1986), numerous publications have resulted from analyses of this database and from research with other diverse samples (see appended References).

A cross-validated factor-analytic study of the original database (Brown, Cash, & Mikulka, 1990) supports the conceptual components of the instrument. The MBSRQ's Factor Subscales reflect two dispositional dimensions--"Evaluation" and cognitive-behavioral "Orientation"--vis-a-vis each of the three somatic domains of "Appearance," "Fitness," and "Health/Illness." A minor exception was an emergence of separate Health and Illness Orientation factors.

In addition to its seven Factor Subscales, the MBSRQ includes three special multi-item subscales: (1) The Body-Areas Satisfaction Scale (BASS) approaches body-image evaluation as satisfaction-dissatisfaction with discrete body features (similar to earlier extant inventories, such as Secord and Jourard's Body Cathexis Scale, Bohrnstedt's Body Parts Satisfaction Scale, and Franzoi's Body Esteem Scale). The remaining two subscales tap weight-related body-image dispositions: (2) The Overweight Preoccupation Scale assesses fat anxiety, weight vigilance, dieting, and eating restraint. (3) The Self-Classified Weight Scale assesses self-appraisals of weight from underweight to overweight.

This manual provides norms, reliability, scoring formulae, interpretive information, and references pertinent to the validity and clinical utility of the MBSRQ. All subscales possess acceptable internal consistency and stability. Cited sources confirm the MBSRQ's convergent, discriminant, and construct validities.

## Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5
Definitely Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Mostly Agree	Definitely Agree

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Before going out in public, I always notice how I look.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. I am careful to buy clothes that will make me look my best.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. I would pass most physical-fitness tests.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. It is important that I have superior physical strength.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. My body is sexually appealing.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. I am not involved in a regular exercise program.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. I am in control of my health.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. I know a lot about things that affect my physical health.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. I have deliberately developed a healthy life-style.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. I constantly worry about being or becoming fat.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. I like my looks just the way they are.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. I check my appearance in a mirror whenever I can.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. Before going out, I usually spend a lot of time getting ready.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. My physical endurance is good.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. Participating in sports is unimportant to me.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. I do not actively do things to keep physically fit.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. My health is a matter of unexpected ups and downs.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Good health is one of the most important things in my life.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. I don't do anything that I know might threaten my health.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. I am very conscious of even small changes in my weight.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. Most people would consider me good-looking.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. It is important that I always look good.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. I use very few grooming products.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. I easily learn physical skills.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. Being physically fit is not a strong priority in my life.

Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire

	1	2	3	4	5
	Definitely Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Mostly Agree	Definitely Agree
_____ 26.	I do things to increase my physical strength.				
_____ 27.	I am seldom physically ill.				
_____ 28.	I take my health for granted.				
_____ 29.	I often read books and magazines that pertain to health.				
_____ 30.	I like the way I look without my clothes on.				
_____ 31.	I am self-conscious if my grooming isn't right.				
_____ 32.	I usually wear whatever is handy without caring how it looks.				
_____ 33.	I do poorly in physical sports or games.				
_____ 34.	I seldom think about my athletic skills.				
_____ 35.	I work to improve my physical stamina.				
_____ 36.	From day to day, I never know how my body will feel.				
_____ 37.	If I am sick, I don't pay much attention to my symptoms.				
_____ 38.	I make no special effort to eat a balanced and nutritious diet.				
_____ 39.	I like the way my clothes fit me.				
_____ 40.	I don't care what people think about my appearance.				
_____ 41.	I take special care with my hair grooming.				
_____ 42.	I dislike my physique.				
_____ 43.	I don't care to improve my abilities in physical activities.				
_____ 44.	I try to be physically active.				
_____ 45.	I often feel vulnerable to sickness.				
_____ 46.	I pay close attention to my body for any signs of illness.				
_____ 47.	If I'm coming down with a cold or flu, I just ignore it and go on as usual.				
_____ 48.	I am physically unattractive.				
_____ 49.	I never think about my appearance.				
_____ 50.	I am always trying to improve my physical appearance.				



## Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire

1	2	3	4	5
Definitely Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Mostly Agree	Definitely Agree

- \_\_\_\_\_ 51. I am very well coordinated.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 52. I know a lot about physical fitness.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 53. I play a sport regularly throughout the year.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 54. I am a physically healthy person.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 55. I am very aware of small changes in my physical health.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 56. At the first sign of illness, I seek medical advice.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 57. I am on a weight-loss diet.

For the remainder of the items, use the response scale given with the item and enter your answer in the space beside the item.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 58. I have tried to lose weight by fasting or going on crash diets.
1. Never
  2. Rarely
  3. Sometimes
  4. Often
  5. Very often
- \_\_\_\_\_ 59. I think I am:
1. Very Underweight
  2. Somewhat Underweight
  3. Normal Weight
  4. Somewhat Overweight
  5. Very Overweight
- \_\_\_\_\_ 60. From looking at me, most other people would think I am:
1. Very Underweight
  2. Somewhat Underweight
  3. Normal Weight
  4. Somewhat Overweight
  5. Very Overweight

## Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire

61-68. Use this 1 to 5 scale to indicate how satisfied you are with each of the following areas or aspects of your body:

1	2	3	4	5
Very Dissatisfied	Mostly Dissatisfied	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	Mostly Satisfied	Very Satisfied

- \_\_\_\_\_ 61. Face (facial features, complexion)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 62. Hair (color, thickness, texture)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 63. Lower torso (buttocks, hips, thighs, legs)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 64. Mid torso (waist, stomach)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 65. Upper torso (chest or breasts, shoulders, arms)
- \_\_\_\_\_ 66. Muscle tone
- \_\_\_\_\_ 67. Weight
- \_\_\_\_\_ 68. Height
- \_\_\_\_\_ 69. Overall appearance

# APPENDIX F

## Frequencies and Percentages for Responses to Individual Items on the MBSRQ

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
1	Definitely Disagree	1.00	1	1.3
	Mostly Agree	2.00	3	3.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	17	21.8
	Definitely Agree	5.00	54	69.2
	Total		78	100.0
2	Definitely Disagree	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	2	2.6
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	0	0.0
	Mostly Agree	4.00	24	30.8
	Definitely Agree	5.00	50	64.1
	Total		78	100.0
3	Definitely Disagree	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	4	5.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	13	16.7
	Mostly Agree	4.00	31	39.7
	Definitely Agree	5.00	28	35.8
	Total		78	100.0
4	Definitely Disagree	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	4	5.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	19	24.4
	Mostly Agree	4.00	21	26.9
	Definitely Agree	5.00	31	39.7
	Total		78	100.0
5	Definitely Disagree	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	3	3.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	16	20.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	26	33.3
	Definitely Agree	5.00	27	34.6
	Missing		2	2.6
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
6	Definitely Disagree	1.00	21	26.9
	Mostly Agree	2.00	9	11.5
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	11	14.1
	Mostly Agree	4.00	17	21.8
	Definitely Agree	5.00	19	24.4
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
7	Definitely Disagree	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	3	3.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	4.00	33	42.3
	Definitely Agree	5.00	36	46.2
	Total		78	100.0
8	Definitely Disagree	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	3	3.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	4.00	27	34.6
	Definitely Agree	5.00	40	51.3
	Total		78	100.0
9	Definitely Disagree	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	6	7.7
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	17	21.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	31	39.7
	Definitely Agree	5.00	19	24.4
	Missing		2	2.6
	Total		78	100.0
10	Definitely Disagree	1.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	2.00	12	15.4
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	13	16.7
	Mostly Agree	4.00	19	24.4
	Definitely Agree	5.00	19	24.4
	Total		78	100.0
11	Definitely Disagree	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	3	3.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	7	9.0
	Mostly Agree	4.00	30	38.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	34	43.6
	Total		78	100.0
12	Definitely Disagree	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	7	9.0
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	11	14.1
	Mostly Agree	4.00	26	33.3
	Definitely Agree	5.00	30	38.5
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
13	Definitely Disagree	1.00	5	6.4
	Mostly Agree	2.00	9	11.5
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	4.00	26	33.3
	Definitely Agree	5.00	23	29.5
	Total		78	100.0
14	Definitely Disagree	1.00	1	1.3
	Mostly Agree	2.00	5	6.4
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	10	12.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	34	43.6
	Definitely Agree	5.00	28	35.9
	Total		78	100.0
15	Definitely Disagree	1.00	22	28.2
	Mostly Agree	2.00	14	17.9
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	4.00	15	19.2
	Definitely Agree	5.00	12	15.4
	Total		78	100.0
16	Definitely Disagree	1.00	20	25.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	15	19.2
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	17	21.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	15	19.2
	Definitely Agree	5.00	11	14.1
	Total		78	100.0
17	Definitely Disagree	1.00	19	24.4
	Mostly Agree	2.00	15	19.2
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	18	23.1
	Mostly Agree	4.00	16	20.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	8	10.3
	Missing		2	2.6
	Total		78	100.0
18	Definitely Disagree	1.00	1	1.3
	Mostly Agree	2.00	1	1.3
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	8	10.3
	Mostly Agree	4.00	27	34.6
	Definitely Agree	5.00	41	52.6
	Total		78	100.0
19	Definitely Disagree	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	6	7.7
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	9	11.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	24	30.8
	Definitely Agree	5.00	37	47.4
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
20	Definitely Disagree	1.00	16	20.5
	Mostly Agree	2.00	10	12.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	13	16.7
	Mostly Agree	4.00	21	26.9
	Definitely Agree	5.00	18	23.1
	Total		78	100.0
21	Definitely Disagree	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	4	5.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	4.00	30	38.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	26	33.3
	Total		78	100.0
22	Definitely Disagree	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	1	1.3
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	16	20.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	26	33.3
	Definitely Agree	5.00	32	41.0
	Total		78	100.0
23	Definitely Disagree	1.00	16	20.5
	Mostly Agree	2.00	10	12.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	9	11.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	25	32.1
	Definitely Agree	5.00	17	21.8
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
24	Definitely Disagree	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	2	2.6
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	13	16.7
	Mostly Agree	4.00	35	44.9
	Definitely Agree	5.00	25	32.1
	Total		78	100.0
25	Definitely Disagree	1.00	17	21.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	20	25.6
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	17	21.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	19	24.4
	Definitely Agree	5.00	5	6.4
	Total		78	100.0
26	Definitely Disagree	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	11	14.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	17	21.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	23	29.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	23	29.5
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
27	Definitely Disagree	1.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	2.00	10	12.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	9	11.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	27	34.6
	Definitely Agree	5.00	16	20.5
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
28	Definitely Disagree	1.00	36	46.2
	Mostly Agree	2.00	13	16.7
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	11	14.1
	Mostly Agree	4.00	7	9.0
	Definitely Agree	5.00	9	11.5
	Missing		2	2.6
	Total		78	100.0
29	Definitely Disagree	1.00	11	14.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	15	19.2
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	17	21.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	20	25.6
	Definitely Agree	5.00	15	19.2
	Total		78	100.0
30	Definitely Disagree	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	7	9.0
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	22	28.2
	Mostly Agree	4.00	23	29.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	21	26.9
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
31	Definitely Disagree	1.00	5	6.4
	Mostly Agree	2.00	9	11.5
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	16	20.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	23	29.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	25	32.1
	Total		78	100.0
32	Definitely Disagree	1.00	36	46.2
	Mostly Agree	2.00	25	32.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	7	9.0
	Mostly Agree	4.00	7	9.0
	Definitely Agree	5.00	3	3.8
	Total		78	100.0
33	Definitely Disagree	1.00	31	39.7
	Mostly Agree	2.00	24	30.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	12	15.4
	Mostly Agree	4.00	5	6.4
	Definitely Agree	5.00	6	7.7
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
34	Definitely Disagree	1.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	2.00	18	23.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	14	17.9
	Mostly Agree	4.00	21	26.9
	Definitely Agree	5.00	9	11.5
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
35	Definitely Disagree	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	11	14.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	24	30.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	20	25.6
	Definitely Agree	5.00	20	25.6
	Total		78	100.0
36	Definitely Disagree	1.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	2.00	18	23.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	17	21.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	15	19.2
	Definitely Agree	5.00	13	16.7
	Total		78	100.0
37	Definitely Disagree	1.00	33	42.3
	Mostly Agree	2.00	14	17.9
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	13	16.7
	Mostly Agree	4.00	14	17.9
	Definitely Agree	5.00	4	5.1
	Total		78	100.0
38	Definitely Disagree	1.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	2.00	21	26.9
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	17	21.8
	Mostly Agree	4.00	16	20.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	9	11.5
	Total		78	100.0
39	Definitely Disagree	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	4	5.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	8	10.3
	Mostly Agree	4.00	26	33.3
	Definitely Agree	5.00	36	46.2
	Total		78	100.0
40	Definitely Disagree	1.00	10	12.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	13	16.7
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	13	16.7
	Mostly Agree	4.00	19	24.6
	Definitely Agree	5.00	23	29.5
	Total		78	100.0



Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
41	Definitely Disagree	1.00	1	1.3
	Mostly Agree	2.00	6	7.7
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	6	7.7
	Mostly Agree	4.00	22	28.2
	Definitely Agree	5.00	43	55.1
	Total		78	100.0
42	Definitely Disagree	1.00	24	30.3
	Mostly Agree	2.00	19	24.4
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	18	23.1
	Mostly Agree	4.00	13	16.7
	Definitely Agree	5.00	4	5.1
	Total		78	100.0
43	Definitely Disagree	1.00	21	26.9
	Mostly Agree	2.00	23	29.5
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	4.00	15	19.2
	Definitely Agree	5.00	3	3.8
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
44	Definitely Disagree	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	11	14.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	9	11.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	30	38.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	25	32.1
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
45	Definitely Disagree	1.00	24	30.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	18	23.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	20	25.6
	Mostly Agree	4.00	13	16.7
	Definitely Agree	5.00	2	2.6
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
46	Definitely Disagree	1.00	5	6.4
	Mostly Agree	2.00	6	7.7
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	16	20.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	28	35.9
	Definitely Agree	5.00	22	28.2
	Missing		1	1.3
	Total		78	100.0
47	Definitely Disagree	1.00	31	39.7
	Mostly Agree	2.00	22	28.2
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	9	11.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	12	15.4
	Definitely Agree	5.00	4	5.1
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
48	Definitely Disagree	1.00	50	64.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	13	16.7
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	5	6.4
	Mostly Agree	4.00	7	9.0
	Definitely Agree	5.00	3	3.8
	Total		78	100.0
49	Definitely Disagree	1.00	44	56.4
	Mostly Agree	2.00	16	20.5
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	6	7.7
	Mostly Agree	4.00	8	10.3
	Definitely Agree	5.00	4	5.1
	Total		78	100.0
50	Definitely Disagree	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	8	10.3
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	4.00	23	29.5
	Definitely Agree	5.00	28	35.9
	Total		78	100.0
51	Definitely Disagree	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	3	3.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	9	11.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	31	39.7
	Definitely Agree	5.00	33	42.3
	Total		78	100.0
52	Definitely Disagree	1.00	6	7.7
	Mostly Agree	2.00	6	7.7
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	15	19.2
	Mostly Agree	4.00	31	39.7
	Definitely Agree	5.00	20	25.6
	Total		78	100.0
53	Definitely Disagree	1.00	27	34.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	11	14.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	8	10.3
	Mostly Agree	4.00	14	17.9
	Definitely Agree	5.00	18	23.1
	Total		78	100.0
54	Definitely Disagree	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Agree	2.00	3	3.8
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	18	23.1
	Mostly Agree	4.00	31	39.7
	Definitely Agree	5.00	23	29.5
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
55	Definitely Disagree	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Agree	2.00	7	9.0
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	9	11.5
	Mostly Agree	4.00	36	46.2
	Definitely Agree	5.00	24	30.8
	Total		78	100.0
56	Definitely Disagree	1.00	11	14.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	19	24.4
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	14	17.9
	Mostly Agree	4.00	15	19.2
	Definitely Agree	5.00	19	24.4
	Total		78	100.0
57	Definitely Disagree	1.00	50	64.1
	Mostly Agree	2.00	4	5.1
	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	3.00	8	10.3
	Mostly Agree	4.00	11	14.1
	Definitely Agree	5.00	5	6.4
	Total		78	100.0
58	Never	1.00	48	61.6
	Rarely	2.00	9	11.5
	Sometimes	3.00	12	15.4
	Often	4.00	3	3.8
	Very Often	5.00	0	0.0
	Missing		6	7.7
	Total		78	100.0
59	Never	1.00	3	3.8
	Rarely	2.00	6	7.7
	Sometimes	3.00	48	61.5
	Often	4.00	13	16.7
	Very Often	5.00	3	3.8
	Missing		5	6.4
	Total		78	100.0
60	Never	1.00	7	9.0
	Rarely	2.00	10	12.8
	Sometimes	3.00	46	59.0
	Often	4.00	10	12.8
	Very Often	5.00	0	0.0
	Missing		5	6.4
	Total		78	100.0
61	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	0	0.0
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	7	9.0
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	33	42.3
	Very Satisfied	5.00	34	43.6
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
62	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	7	9.0
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	34	43.6
	Very Satisfied	5.00	33	42.3
	Total		78	100.0
63	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	6	7.7
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	12	15.4
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	27	34.6
	Very Satisfied	5.00	30	38.5
	Total		78	100.0
64	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	6	7.7
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	12	15.4
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	13	16.7
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	19	24.4
	Very Satisfied	5.00	28	35.9
	Total		78	100.0
65	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	2	2.6
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	6	7.7
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	14	17.9
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	26	33.3
	Very Satisfied	5.00	30	38.5
	Total		78	100.0
66	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	3	3.8
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	7	9.0
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	14	17.9
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	30	38.5
	Very Satisfied	5.00	24	30.8
	Total		78	100.0
67	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	4	5.1
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	14	17.9
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	5	6.4
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	31	39.7
	Very Satisfied	5.00	24	30.8
	Total		78	100.0
68	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	1	1.3
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	3	3.8
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	7	9.0
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	34	43.6
	Very Satisfied	5.00	33	42.3
	Total		78	100.0

Item	Response	Value	Frequency	%
69	Very Dissatisfied	1.00	0	0.0
	Mostly Dissatisfied	2.00	2	2.6
	Neither Satisfied Nor Dissatisfied	3.00	7	9.0
	Mostly Satisfied	4.00	29	37.2
	Very Satisfied	5.00	40	51.3
	Total		78	100.0

# APPENDIX G

## Means, Frequencies, and Percentages for Factor Subscales on the MBSRQ

Factor Subscale	Item Means	Frequency	%
Appearance Evaluation	2.14	1	1.3
	2.29	1	1.3
	2.43	4	5.1
	3.00	6	7.7
	3.14	5	6.4
	3.29	12	15.4
	3.43	15	19.2
	3.57	11	14.1
	3.71	9	11.5
	3.86	6	7.7
	4.00	1	1.3
	4.14	2	2.6
	4.29	2	2.6
	Missing	3	3.8
	Total	78	100.0
Appearance Orientation	1.42	1	1.3
	1.58	1	1.3
	2.33	1	1.3
	2.58	1	1.3
	2.75	2	2.6
	2.92	2	2.6
	3.00	2	2.6
	3.08	2	2.6
	3.17	4	5.1
	3.25	4	5.1
	3.33	1	1.3
	3.42	4	5.1
	3.50	6	7.7
	3.58	7	9.0
	3.67	6	7.7
	3.75	5	6.4

Factor Subscale	Item Means	Frequency	%
Appearance Orientation	3.83	7	9.0
(Continued)	3.92	5	6.4
	4.00	2	2.6
	4.08	3	3.8
	4.17	1	1.3
	4.25	3	3.8
	4.33	5	6.4
	4.50	1	1.3
	4.67	1	1.3
	Missing	1	1.3
Fitness Evaluation	1.33	1	1.3
	2.00	1	1.3
	2.33	2	2.6
	2.67	6	7.7
	3.00	10	12.8
	3.33	24	30.8
	3.67	20	25.6
	4.00	7	9.9
	4.33	5	6.4
	4.67	1	1.3
	5.00	1	1.3
	Total	78	100.0
Self-Classified Weight	2.38	1	1.3
	2.54	3	3.8
	2.62	2	2.6
	2.77	2	2.6
	2.85	1	1.3
	2.92	2	2.6
	3.00	7	9.0
	3.15	4	5.1
	3.23	9	11.5
	3.31	10	12.8
	3.38	5	6.4
	3.46	6	7.7
	3.54	4	5.1
	3.62	2	2.6
	3.69	3	3.8
	3.77	2	2.6
	3.85	2	2.6
	3.92	1	1.3
	4.00	2	2.6

Factor Subscale	Item Means	Frequency	%
Self-Classified Weight (Continued)	4.17	5	6.4
	Missing	3	3.8
	Total	78	100.0
Health Evaluation	1.50	1	1.3
	2.33	3	3.8
	2.50	3	3.8
	2.67	3	3.8
	2.83	10	12.8
	3.00	12	15.4
	3.17	6	7.7
	3.33	9	11.5
	3.50	10	12.8
	3.67	5	6.4
	3.83	5	6.4
	4.00	3	3.8
	4.17	5	6.4
	Missing	3	3.8
	Total	78	100.0
Health Orientation	2.25	1	1.3
	2.50	2	2.6
	2.63	1	1.3
	2.75	2	2.6
	2.88	2	2.6
	3.00	4	5.1
	3.13	6	7.7
	3.25	6	7.7
	3.38	8	10.3
	3.50	7	9.0
	3.63	7	9.0
	3.75	8	10.3
	3.88	5	6.4
	4.00	9	11.5
	4.13	3	3.8
	4.25	1	1.3
	4.38	1	1.3
	4.50	1	1.3
	4.75	1	1.3
	Missing	3	3.8
	Total	78	100.0



Factor Subscale	Item Means	Frequency	%
Body Areas Satisfaction	2.13	1	1.3
	2.25	1	1.3
	2.50	1	1.3
	2.63	3	3.8
	2.88	1	1.3
	3.00	1	1.3
	3.13	2	2.6
	3.25	2	2.6
	3.38	3	3.8
	3.50	4	5.1
	3.63	6	7.7
	3.75	8	10.3
	3.88	3	3.8
	4.00	9	11.5
	4.13	4	5.1
	4.25	5	6.4
	4.38	2	2.6
	4.50	5	6.4
	4.63	2	2.6
	4.75	1	1.3
	4.88	2	2.6
	5.00	11	14.1
	Total	78	100.0
Overweight Preoccupation	1.00	7	9.0
	1.25	8	10.3
	1.50	6	7.7
	1.75	3	3.8
	2.00	1	1.3
	2.25	8	10.3
	2.50	6	7.7
	2.75	8	10.3
	3.00	7	9.0
	3.25	2	2.6
	3.50	9	11.5
	3.75	1	1.3
	4.00	4	5.1
	4.25	2	2.6
	Missing	6	7.7
	Total	78	100.0
Self-Classified Weight	1.00	2	2.6
	1.50	3	3.8
	2.00	6	7.7

Factor Subscale	Item Means	Frequency	%
Self-Classified Weight (Continued)	2.50	5	6.4
	3.00	40	51.3
	3.50	10	12.8
	4.00	4	5.1
	4.50	3	3.8
	Missing	5	6.4
	Total	78	100.0

## REFERENCES

Akbar, N. (1991). Chains and images of psychological slavery. Jersey City, NJ: New Mind Productions.

Allen, S. F., Stoltenburg, C. D., & Rosko, C. (1990). Perceived psychological separation of older adolescents and young adults from their parents: A comparison of divorced versus intact families. Journal of Counseling and Development, 69, 57-61.

Amato, R., & Booth, A. (1991). The consequence of divorce for attitudes toward divorce and gender roles. Journal of Family Issues, 12(3), 306-322.

Baumrind, D. (1972). An exploratory study of socialization on black children: Some black-white comparisons. Child Development, 43, 266-267.

Berger, C. R. (1968). Sex differences related to self-esteem factor structure. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 32(4), 442-446.

Bernstein, N. R. (1990). Objective bodily damage, disfigurement and dignity. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), Body images: Development, deviance and change. New York: Guilford Press.

Berscheid, E., Walster, E., & Bohrnstedt, G. (1993, November). Body image: The happy American body: A survey report. Psychology Today, 119-131.

Blankenhorn, D. (1995). Fatherless America: Confronting our most urgent social problem. New York: Basic Books.

Bond, S., & Cash, T. F. (1992). Black beauty: Skin color and body images among African American college women. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 22(11), 874-888.

Bowen, D. J., Tomoyasu, N., & Cauce, A. M. (1991). The triple threat: A discussion of gender, class, and race differences in weight. Women and Health, 17(4), 123-141.

Brody, G. H., Moore, K., & Glel, D. (1994). Family processes during adolescence as predictors of parent-young adult attitude similarity. Family Relations, 43, 369-373.

Brouwers, M. (1990). Treatment of body image dissatisfaction among women with bulimia nervosa. Journal of Counseling and Development, 69, 144-147.

Brown, T. A., Cash, T. F., & Mikulka, P. J. (1990). Attitudinal body-image assessment: Factor analysis of the body-self relations questionnaire. Journal of Personality Assessment, 55(1-2), 135-144.

Butters, J. W., & Cash, T. F. (1987). Cognitive-behavioral treatment of women's body image dissatisfaction. Journal of Counseling and Clinical Psychology, 55(6), 889-897.

Casey, A. E. Foundation. (1997). Kids count data book. Maryland: Casey Foundation.

Cash, T. F. (1994). Multidimensional Body-Self Relations Questionnaire users' manual. Norfolk, VA: Author

Cash, T. F., & Brown, T. A. (1989). Gender and body images: Stereotypes and realities. Sex Roles, 21(5/6), 361-373.

Cash, T. F., & Butters, J. W. (1987). Cognitive-behavioral treatment of women's body-image dissatisfaction. Journal of Counseling and Clinical Psychology, 55(6), 889-897.

Cash, T. F., & Green, G. K. (1986). Body weight and body image among college women: Perception, cognition, and affect. Journal of Personal Assessment, 50(2), 290-301.

Cash, T. F., & Pruzinsky, T. (Eds.). (1990). Body images: Development, deviance and change. New York: Guilford Press.

Cash, T. F., Winstead, B. A., & Janda, L. H. (1996, April). The great American shape up. Psychology Today, 37.

Chubb, N. H., Fertman, C. I., & Ross, J. L. (1997, Spring). Adolescent self-esteem and locus of control: A longitudinal study of gender age differences. Adolescence, 32(125), 113-126.

Clark, K., & Clark, M. (1947). Emotional factors in racial identification and preference in Negro children. Journal of Negro Education, pp. 341-350.

Clifford, E. (1971). Body satisfaction in adolescence. Perceptual and Motor Skills, 33, 119-125.

Cooney, T. M., & Kurtz, J. (1996). Mental health outcomes following recent parental divorce--The case of young adult offspring. Journal of Family Issues, 17(4), 495-513.

Comez-Diaz, L., & Green, B. (Eds.). (1996). Women of color, integrating ethnic and gender identities in psychotherapy. New York: Guilford Press.

Crockett, L. J., & Eggebeen, D. J. (1993). Father's presence and young children's behavioral and cognitive adjustment. Journal of Family Issues, 14(3) 355-377.

Davis, M. (1994). Women's attitudes toward their fathers. Unpublished thesis, California State University.

Eggebeen, D. J., Snyder, A., & Manning, W. (1996). Children in single-father families in demographic perspective. Journal of Family Issues, 17(4), 441-465.

Fabian, L. J., & Thompson, K. J. (1989). Body image and eating disturbance in young females. International Journal of Eating Disorders, 1, 63-74.

Fagot, B. (1982). Adults as socializing agents. In T. Field, A. Huston, H. Quay, L. Troll, & G. Finley (Eds.), Review of human development. New York: Wiley.

Fallon, A. (1990). Culture in the mirror: Sociocultural determinants of body image. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), Body image: Development, deviance and change (pp. 80-109). New York: Guilford Press.

Fields, S. (1983). Like father, like daughter (1st ed.). Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

Fisher, S. (1990). The evolution of psychological concepts about the body. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), Body image: Development, deviance and change (pp. 3-19). New York: Guilford Press.

Forehand, R., & Nousaianen, S. (1993). Maternal and paternal parenting, critical dimensions in adolescent functioning. Journal of Family Psychology, 7, 213-221.

Frank, S., Pirsch, L., & Wright, V. (1990). Late adolescents' perceptions of their relationships with their parents: Relationships among deidealization, autonomy, relatedness, and insecurity and implications for adolescent adjustment and ego identity status. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 19(6), 571-588.

Franzoi, S. L., & Herzog, M. E. (1986). The body esteem scale: A convergent and discriminant validity study. Journal of Personality Assessment, 50(1), 24-31.

Freedman, R. (1988). Learning to like our looks and ourselves: Body love. New York: Harper and Row.

Freedman, R. (1990). Cognitive-behavioral perspectives on body image change. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), Body image: Development, deviance and change (pp. 272-295). New York: Guilford Press.

Fullinwider-Bush, N., & Jacobitz, D. B. (1993). The transition to young adulthood: Generation boundary dissolution and female identity development. Family Processes, 32, 87-93.

Gallagher, M. (1998). Father hunger. In C. Daniels, Lost fathers: The politics of fatherlessness in America (pp. 163-182). New York: St. Martin's Press.

Giordano, P. C., Chernkovich, S. A., & Demaris, A. (1993). The family and peer relations of Black adolescents. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 55, 277-287.

Goulter, B., & Miennenger, J. (1993). The father-daughter dance. New York: Avon Books.

Hall, C. S., & Gardner, L. (1978). Theories of personality (3rd ed.) (pp. 179-204). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Hall, W. S., Cross, W. E., Jr., & Freedle, R. (1972). Stages in the development of Black awareness: An exploratory investigation. In R. L. Jones (Ed.), Black psychology (pp. 156-165). New York: Harper and Row.

Harris, S. M. (1994). Racial differences in predictors of college women's body image attitudes. Women and Health, 21(4), 89-100.

Harris, S. M. (1995a). Body image attitudes and the psychosocial development of college women. Journal of Psychology, 29(3), 315-329.

Harris, S. M. (1995b). Family, self and sociological contributions to body-image attitudes of African American women. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 19, 129-145.

Herzog, E., & Sudia, C. E. (1973). Children in fatherless families. In B. Caldwell & H. Ricciuti (Eds.), Child development and social policy, Vol. 3 (pp. 141-229). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Hess, R., & Camera, K. A. (1979). Post-divorced family relationships as mediating factors in the consequences of divorces for children. Journal of Social Issues, 35, 603-611.

Hess, R. D., Hoelter, J., & Harper, L. (1987). Structural and interpersonal family influences on adolescent self-conception. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 49, 129-139.

Hoelter, J., & Harper, L. (1987). Structural and interpersonal family influences on adolescent self-conception. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 49, 129-139.

Hooks, B. (1995, August). Appearance obsession--Is the price too high? Essence, 69-70, 112.

Jackson, L. A., & McGill, O. D. (1996). Body type preferences and body characteristics associated with attractive and unattractive bodies by Africans and Anglo-Americans. Sex Roles, 35(5/6), 295-307.

Jean, P. J. (1981). The effect of male presence on female self-consciousness, body image and mood. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Nebraska, Lincoln.

Jourard, S., & Secord, P. (1954, January). Body cathexis and the ideal female figure. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 18, 243-246.

Kaufman, I., & Heims, L. (1956). The body image of the juvenile delinquent. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 28, 146-159.

Kenny, M. E. (1994). Quality and correlates of parental attachment among late adolescents. Journal of Counseling and Development, 72, 339-403.

Kruk, E. (1991). Discontinuity between pre- and post-divorce father-child relationships: New evidence regarding paternal disengagement. Journal of Divorce and Remarriage, 16(314), 195-227.

Kruk, E. (1994). The disengaged non-custodian father: Implications for social work practice with the divorced family. Social Work, 39(1), 15-25.

Kurtz, R. M. (1969). Sex differences and variation in body attitudes. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 33(5), 625-629.

Lerner, R., & Jovanovic, J. (1990). The role of body image in psychosocial development across the life span: A developmental contextual perspective. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), Body image: Development, deviance and change (pp. 110-129). New York: Guilford Press.

Lincoln, C. E. (1971). The absent father haunts the Negro family. In R. Stapes (Ed.), The Black family: Essays and studies (pp. 343-348). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing.

Mahoney, M. (1990). Psychotherapy and the body in the mind. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), Body image: Development, deviance and change (pp. 316-333). New York: Guilford Press.

Marshall, O. A. (1997). Nurturing the Black adolescent male: Culture, ethnicity and race. Unpublished manuscript.



McAdoo, J. L. (1993). Role of African American fathers: An ecological perspective. Families in Society: Journal of Contemporary Human Services, 28-35.

McCurdy, S. J., & Scherman, A. (1996). Effects of family structure on the adolescent separation-individual process. Adolescence, 31, 122.

Mellor, S. (1989). Gender differences in identity formation as a function of self-other relationships. Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 18(4).

Micelle, R. D. (1994). A multidimensional conceptualization of body image: The validation of the Body Image Questionnaire within a population of adolescents. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, California School of Professional Psychology.

Minton, C., & Pasley, K. (1996). Fathers' parenting role identity and father involvement: A comparison of non-divorced and divorced, non-resident fathers. Journal of Family Issues, 17(1), 26-45.

Muuss, R. (1988). Culture and weight consciousness. In M. Nasser, The philosophical and historical roots of theories.

Nasser, M. (1988). Culture and weight consciousness. Psychosomatic Research, 32(6), 573-577.

Padin, M. A., Lerner, R. M., & Spiro, A., III. (1981). Stability of body attitudes and self-esteem in late adolescents. Adolescence, 16, 62.

Randolph, L. (1997, November). For the love of money. Ebony, p. 26.

Rauste-Von Wright, M. (1988). Body image satisfaction in adolescent boys and girls: A longitudinal study.

Rosen, G. M., & Ross, A. O. (1968). Relationship of body image to self concept. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 32(1), 100.

Rosen, J. (1991). Body image disturbances in eating disorders. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), Body image: Development, deviance and change (pp. 190-207). New York: Guilford Press.

Ross, V. (1997, Fall). Teach your children well. Insight, 18(2). Ridgeview Institute.

Rucker, C. E., & Cash, T. F. (1991). Body images, body-size perceptions, and eating behaviors among African-American and white college women. International Journal of Eating Disorders, 12(3), 291-299.

Schierse-Leonard, L. S. (1985). The wounded woman: Healing the father-daughter relationship. Boston: Shambhala.

Secunda, V. (1992). Women and their fathers: The sexual and romantic impact of the first man in your life. New York: Delacorte Press.

Seltzer, J. (1991). Relationships between fathers and children who live apart: The father's role after separation. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 53, 79-101.

Slater, & Haber. (1984). Adolescent adjustment following divorce as a function of familial conflict. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 52(5), 920-921.

Smith, L., Burlew, K., & Lundgreen, D. (1991). Black consciousness, self-esteem and satisfaction with physical appearance among African American female college students. Journal of Black Studies, 22(20), 269-283.

Staffieri, J. (1967). A study of social stereotype of body image in children. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 7(1), 101-104.

Steinberg, L. (1989). Adolescence (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Sullivan, H. S. (1953). The interpersonal theory of psychiatry. New York: W. W. Norton & Company.

Thomas, V. (1988). Body image satisfaction among Black women. Journal of Social Psychology.

Thompson, K. (1990a). Body image disturbance, assessment and treatment. New York: Pergamon Press.

Thompson, K. (1990b). Procedures, problems, and progress in the assessment of body images. In T. F. Cash & T. Pruzinsky (Eds.), Body image: Development, deviance and change (pp. 21-47). New York: Guilford Press.

Thornton, A., Orbuch, T., & Axinn, W. (1995). Parent-child relationships during the transition to adulthood. Journal of Family Issues, 16(5), 538-564.

U.S. Bureau of the Census. (1998). Statistical Abstract of the U.S. 1998 edition (Table 78). Washington D.C. Government Printing Office.

Wade, J. (1994). African American fathers and sons: Social, historical, and psychological considerations. Families in Society: Journal of Contemporary Services, 75, 561-570.

White, L. K., Brinkerhoff, D., & Booth, A. (1985). The effect of marital disruption on child's attachment to parents. Journal of Family Issues, 16(1), 5-22.

Zerbe-Enns, C. (1991). The "new" relationship models of women's identity: A review and critique for counselors. Journal of Counseling and Development, 69, 217.